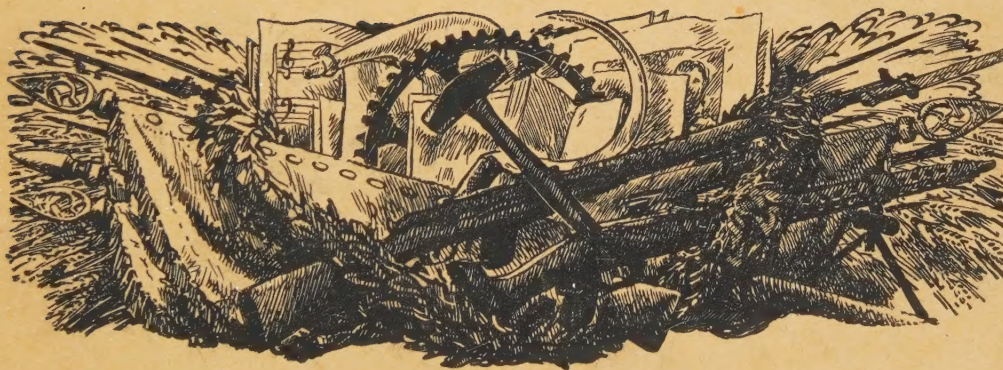


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V O K S

B U L L E T I N

1949



M O S C O W U * S * S * R

V O K S

B U L L E T I N



No. 1—2

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Editor-in-Chief

V. KEMENOV

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JOSEPH STALIN

PEOPLE'S COMMISSAR OF DEFENSE OF THE USSR



ORDER OF PEOPLE'S COMMISSAR OF DEFENSE OF THE USSR

No. 55

MEN of the Red Army and Red Navy, commanders and political workers, guerrillas, both men and women—comrades!

The peoples of our country are celebrating the twenty-fourth anniversary of the Red Army amidst the stern realities of a war for our native land, a war against fascist Germany, which is brazenly and despicably encroaching upon its freedom and imperilling its very life. Along the whole length of the huge front, which stretches from the Arctic Ocean to the Black Sea, the men of the Red Army and Navy are waging a bitter fight to drive the German fascist invaders from our country and uphold its honour and independence.

This is not the first time that the Red Army has had to defend our native land against enemy attacks. The Red Army was created twenty-four years ago to combat the troops of the foreign interventionist invaders who were endeavouring to dismember our country and destroy its independence. Though going into battle for the first time, the recently formed units of the Red Army utterly crushed the German invaders at Pskov and Narva on the 23rd of February, 1918. That is why that date was picked as the Red Army's birthday. Subsequently the Red Army grew and gained strength in the struggle with the foreign interventionist invaders. It successfully defended our country in the battles with the German invaders in 1918 and drove

them beyond the confines of the Ukraine and Byelorussia. It successfully defended our country in the battles with the foreign troops of the Entente in 1919—1921 and drove them too beyond the confines of our country.

The rout of the foreign interventionist invaders during the Civil War secured the peoples of the Soviet Union a long period of peace and gave them the opportunity of engaging in peaceful construction. During those two decades of peaceful construction there sprang up in our country socialist industry and collective farming; science and culture flourished and the bonds of friendship between the peoples of our country strengthened. But the Soviet people never forgot the possibility of a new enemy attack on our country. That is why the military might of the Soviet Union grew simultaneously with the resurgence of industry and agriculture, of science and culture. That might several parties, covetous of other people's land, have already had occasion to feel to their sorrow. At the present moment the much-vaunted German fascist army is feeling it.

Eight months ago fascist Germany perfidiously fell upon our country, grossly and basely violating the non-aggression pact. The enemy figured that after the very first blow the Red Army would go to smash and would lose its power of resistance. But the enemy sadly miscalculated. He did not take into consideration the strength of the Red Army,

did not take into consideration the solidity of the Soviet rear, did not take into consideration the will of the peoples of our country to achieve victory, did not take into consideration the unreliability of the European rear of fascist Germany, did not take into consideration, finally, the inherent weakness of fascist Germany and its army.

Owing to the surprise and suddenness of the German fascist attack, the Red Army during the first few months of the war found itself compelled to retreat, to withdraw from part of Soviet territory. But in retreating the Red Army wore down the forces of the enemy and inflicted severe blows upon him. Neither the men of the Red Army nor the peoples of our country doubted that that withdrawal was but temporary, that the enemy would be halted and thereafter defeated.

In the course of the war new vital forces poured into the Red Army. It received replenishments of men and equipment, and new, reserve divisions came to its aid. The time arrived when the Red Army was able to assume the offensive on the main sectors of the huge front. In a brief span the Red Army dealt several successive blows to the German fascist troops—at Rostov-on-Don and Tikhvin, in the Crimea and near Moscow. In the desperate battles near Moscow the Red Army routed the German fascist troops which had threatened to surround the Soviet capital. The Red Army threw back the enemy from Moscow and is still continuing to push him westward. The Moscow and Tula Regions as well as dozens of towns and hundreds of villages of other regions temporarily captured by the enemy have been completely cleared of German invaders.

The Germans now no longer have that military advantage which they possessed during the first months of the war as a result of their treacherous and sudden attack. The element of surprise and unexpectedness, like the reserves of the German fascist troops, is completely spent. This has put an end to that inequality in war conditions which was created by the suddenness of the German fascist attack. From now on the outcome of the war will be decided, not by such an adventitious element as surprise, but by permanently operating factors: stability of the rear, moral of the army, quantity and quality of

divisions, equipment of the army, organizing ability of the commanding personnel of the army. At this point one circumstance ought to be noted: it only wanted the element of surprise to disappear from the Germans' stock-in-trade for the German fascist army to find itself faced with disaster.

The German fascists consider their army invincible, asserting that in single combat it would unquestionably smash the Red Army. At the present time the Red Army and the German fascist army are each fighting single-handed. More. The German fascist army has the direct support at the front of Italian, Rumanian and Finnish troops. So far the Red Army has no similar support. And what do we find? The vaunted German army is suffering defeat while the Red Army has major successes to its credit. Under the sledge-hammer blows of the Red Army the German troops are reeling back to the West, sustaining huge losses in men and equipment. They hold on to every line of defense, trying to defer the day of their rout. But the enemy's efforts are in vain. The initiative is now in our hands and no matter how much Hitler's rusty, shaken-up machine may exert itself, it cannot withstand the pressure of the Red Army. The day is not far distant when the Red Army with a mighty blow will thrust back the brutal enemy from Leningrad and sweep clear of him the towns and villages of Bielorussia and the Ukraine, of Lithuania and Latvia, Esthonia and Karelia, will free the Soviet Crimea, and then once more the red flag will fly victoriously over the entire Soviet land.

It would, however, be unpardonable shortsightedness to rest content with the successes achieved and to think that the German troops have already been done for. That would be empty boasting and conceit unworthy of Soviet people. It should not be forgotten that there are still many difficulties ahead. The enemy is suffering defeat, but he is not struck down and still less struck dead. The enemy is still strong. He will muster his last forces in order to attain success. And the more he suffers defeat, the more brutal he will become. Therefore it is essential that in our country the training of reserves in aid of the front should not be relaxed for a moment. It is essential that ever new military units

pour to the front to forge the victory over the infuriated enemy. It is essential that our industry, particularly our war industry, should work with redoubled energy. It is essential that with every passing day the front should receive ever more tanks, planes, guns, trench mortars, machine-guns, rifles, automatics and ammunition.

Herein lies one of the basic sources of the strength and power of the Red Army.

But the strength of the Red Army does not consist only in this.

The strength of the Red Army consists, above all, in the fact that it is waging, not a predatory, not an imperialist war, but a war for country, a war of liberation, a just war. The Red Army's task is to clear our Soviet territory of the German invaders; to liberate from the yoke of the German invaders the people of our villages and towns who were free and lived like human beings before the war, but are now oppressed and suffering from rapine, ruination and famine; and, finally, to liberate our women from that shame and defilement to which they are subjected by the German fascist monsters. What could be more noble, more lofty, than such a task? Not one German soldier can say that he is waging a just war, because he cannot fail to see that he is forced to fight for the despoliation and oppression of other peoples. The German soldier has no such lofty and noble aim in the war as could inspire him and of which he could be proud. But, in contrast, any Red Army man can say with pride that he is waging a war of justice and liberation, a war for the freedom and independence of his fatherland. The Red Army does have a noble and lofty aim in the war which inspires it in its great exploits. It is precisely this that explains why the patriotic war we are engaged in brings forth among us thousands of heroes and heroines ready to go to their death for the sake of the liberty of their country.

Herein lies the strength of the Red Army.

And herein lies the weakness of the German fascist army.

The foreign press sometimes carries such twaddle as that the Red Army pursues the aim of exterminating the German people and destroying the German state. That, of course, is bosh and nonsense, and a stupid calumni-

ation of the Red Army. The Red Army has not and cannot have such idiotic aims. The Red Army's aim is to drive the German occupants from our country and clear Soviet soil of the German fascist invaders. It is highly probable that the war for the liberation of Soviet soil will lead to the exile or destruction of Hitler's clique. We should welcome such an outcome. But it would be ludicrous to identify Hitler's clique with the German people, with the German state. The experience of history indicates that Hitlers come and go, but the German people and the German state live on.

The strength of the Red Army lies, finally, in the fact that it does not and cannot feel racial hatred for other peoples, including here the German people; that it has been trained in the spirit of equality of all peoples and races, in the spirit of respect for the rights of other peoples. The Germans' racial theory and the practice of racial hatred have led all freedom-loving peoples to become enemies of fascist Germany. The USSR's theory of racial equality and its practice of respecting the rights of other peoples have led all freedom-loving peoples to become friends of the Soviet Union.

Herein lies the strength of the Red Army.

And herein lies the weakness of the German fascist army.

The foreign press sometimes carries such twaddle as that the Soviet people hate the Germans as Germans, that the Red Army exterminates German soldiers as Germans out of hatred for everything German and that therefore the Red Army does not take German soldiers prisoner. That, of course, is just some more of the same bosh and nonsense and a stupid calumination of the Red Army. The Red Army is devoid of all sentiments of racial hatred. It is devoid of such degrading sentiments because it has been trained in the spirit of racial equality and respect for the rights of other people. It should not be forgotten either that in our country any manifestation of racial hatred is punishable by law.

Of course, the Red Army has to destroy the German fascist invaders inasmuch as they are out to enslave our country; or when, on being surrounded by our troops, they refuse to lay down their arms and surrender. The

Red Army annihilates them, not because of their German origin, but because they want to enslave our country. The Red Army, like the army of any other people, has the right and is duty-bound to annihilate the enslavers of its fatherland, irrespective of their nationality. Not long ago the German garrisons in the towns of Kalinin, Klin, Sukhinichi, Andreapol and Toropets were surrounded by our troops. It was proposed to them that they surrender, and they were promised that if they did their lives would be spared. The German garrisons refused to lay down their arms and be made prisoners of war. It is obvious that they had to be dislodged and driven out by force, in the doing of which quite a few Germans were killed. War is war. The Red Army takes German soldiers and officers prisoner if they surrender, and spares their lives. The Red Army annihilates German soldiers and officers if they refuse to lay down their arms, and, arms in hand,

endeavour to enslave our country. Remember the words of Maxim Gorki, the great Russian writer: "If the enemy does not surrender he must be annihilated."

Comrades! Red Army men and Red sailors, commanders and political workers, men and women guerrillas! I congratulate you on the occasion of the twenty-fourth anniversary of the Red Army! I wish you complete victory over the German fascist invaders.

Long live the Red Army and Navy!

Long live the men and women guerrillas!

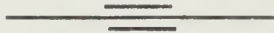
Long live our glorious native land, its freedom and its independence!

Long live the great party of the Bolsheviks which is leading us to victory!

Long live the invincible banner of the great Lenin!

Under the banner of Lenin onward to the defeat of the German fascist invaders!

J. Stalin.



SOVIET DEMOCRACY IN WAR TIME

by A. GORKIN

THE GRIM events of the world war which we are passing through to-day serve as an historical test of the different social and political systems warring. In this life and death struggle of the forces of peace and liberty against aggression and reaction the victory will be on the side of the democratic bloc, whose struggle against German imperialism reflects the progressive tendencies in the development of history, have the support of the large masses and the sympathy of all that is progressive in mankind.

The USSR received the main blow of the Hitler's military machine and fighting it out face to face inflicted the first defeat on the German fascist army. Having thoroughly worn out the enemy troops, the Red Army not only stopped their advance, but even undertook a counter-offensive, and now it drives the German invaders more and more westwards. In the days of these severe trials the stability and indestructibility of the Soviet democracy has become evident, and in the near future it will reveal itself still more evident.

The Soviet state, which has been founded by Lenin and Stalin, rests on a strong foundation. It is based on a firm union between the working class and the peasantry, and on the fraternal cooperation and unshakeable friendship between the peoples of the USSR. According to the Constitution the entire power in the USSR belongs to the toilers of city and village, in the person of the Soviets workers deputies. Stalin gave a remarkable characteristic of the nature of the Soviets.

"Wherein lies the strength of our state apparatus? — Stalin said. It serves as a link

between the power and millions of workers and peasants, through the Soviets. The Soviets are a school of government for tens and hundreds of thousands of workers and peasants. The state apparatus does not segregate itself from the millions of the people but is fused with them through a countless number of mass organizations, all kinds of commissions, sections, conferences, delegates's meetings etc. which surround and support the Soviets."

Therein lies the inexhaustible source of the strength of the Soviet state, based on the principles of a real democracy.

The troubles with which the Soviet people have been burdened in this war for our fatherland have not led to a decay of the Soviet state, as the Hitler bandits had expected. The temporary setbacks of the Red Army have not only failed to weaken, but have even strengthened the union of the workers and peasants, the friendship among the peoples of the USSR and the faith of the workers in the power of the Soviets. They have turned the family of the peoples of the USSR into a single inviolable camp, which with a self-sacrifice supports its Red Army and Red Navy. "If the Soviet regime has so easily borne the troubles and fortified its rear even more, it means that the Soviet regime is now the most stable regime" (Stalin).

During the period of peaceful work the Soviets were the organizers of the masses in the efforts towards the fulfilment of the plans for economic and cultural development. The main attention in the activity of the Soviets

was centered on the utmost carrying out of the government instructions in the industrialization of the country, in the collectivization and mechanization of agriculture and in the uplifting of the cultural and material level of the people.

These problems were predominant at the sessions of the Soviets, in the work of the commissions and in the activity of every deputy. Being closely linked to the toilers organizations and leaning in its work on the activity of the masses, the Soviets helped in finding new sources of material means, which were used in the building of factories, shops, machine-and tractor stations, schools, hospitals, on improvements of the conditions in towns and villages and in the development of local and handcraft industry. The Soviets supported the initiative of the workers and directed the labour enthusiasm of the people towards the fulfilment of the production plans for industry, transportation, agriculture and trade ahead of time.

The war broke off our peaceful disposition; it placed new problems before the Soviets and the entire country; it advanced the necessity for a thorough reorganization of the system of work and it demanded the renouncing of "peaceful construction methods, which were fully comprehensible in pre-war time, but ruinous at present, when the war has radically altered the situation" (Stalin).

The activity of the Soviets became much more complicated in wartime conditions; there was a change of the problems which the Soviets and the executive committees now had to solve. In war time it becomes necessary to subordinate everything to the interests of the front and to the organization of the rout of the enemy.

The local Soviets have played an enormous part in the gigantic work connected with the mobilization of the human forces and of the material resources, to throw back the German fascist forces, by which we were so perfidiously attacked.

The Soviets have headed the activity of the population and its readiness to sacrifice everything in the defense of the fatherland; they directed the patriotic enthusiasm of the masses towards the realization of the broad practical measures to strengthen the military power of the country. Therein became evident

the force and efficiency of Soviet democracy and the firm bonds uniting the Soviets and the population.

The Soviets were of great assistance to the war organizations in the formation and dispatch of reinforcements, in the construction of fortifications, in providing the army with materials and provisions and in the delivery for it of horses, means of transportation and equipment.

For the convenience of general military training, the executive committees of the city and village Soviets found the necessary premises and outfitted them with the necessary inventory.

Much work was done by the Soviets in carrying out air defense measures, in the training of instructors and in the education of the masses for a repeal of enemy air raids. The country knows how much has been done in this respect by the municipal and regional Soviets of Moscow, Leningrad, Odessa and other cities and what heroism has been shown by the workers in fighting fires and destructions caused by bombings. The Moscow and Leningrad municipal Soviets are veritable headquarters in the struggle against enemy air raids.

The Soviets have taken an interest in the patriotic beginnings of the masses which are directed towards an increase of the military might of the country. Supported by the deputies and active workers, together with the toilers' organizations, they have done much work in handling and transferring to the Red Army the money, winter things and other valuables, which were contributed in such large quantities by the population. Thousands of millions of rubles were received by the defense fund, and the fighters of the army received tens of millions of winter things carefully prepared by Soviet patriots.

New forms of assistance to the front on the part of the population spring up every day. The Soviets assist the different organizations in carrying out every measure of help for the Red Army, they direct this work, which is so important to the state, and encourage the initiative shown by the foremost people of the country.

In addition to the direct defense measures the Soviets have been very helpful to industry in the fulfilment of their plans and in

the overcoming of such difficulties caused by the war as the evacuation of enterprises, the shortages of workers and of means of transportation and the difficulties in obtaining raw materials. The Soviets had to solve such important problems as the seating of evacuated factories, the housing of newly-arrived workers, the mobilization of man power to work in the war industry and the manufacture and supply of such tools as crowbars, pick-axes and shovels. The Soviets had to switch on the local handicraft enterprises to the fulfilment of war orders for the front.

In war time conditions, when a considerable portion of working hands, draft animals and auto transport has been removed from use in the fields, the collective and state farms have concentrated their efforts on the efficient gathering of the harvest and the delivery of agricultural products to the state. Here came to light the advantages of collective management, of its organization and high degree of mechanization and of the importance of the assistance and leadership on the part of the Soviets.

In the regions which are situated close to the front the Soviets directly assisted the military command in carrying out air and defense measures, in building fortifications and anti-tank obstructions, in the manufacturing of munitions and the organization of repair work for tanks, automobiles and arms. The Soviets organized the evacuation of factories and of the population.

Our entire country rose against the foul enemy, to fight for the independence and for the freedom of the Soviet peoples. The rear of the Red Army has proved itself to be unusually strong, and every form of assistance has been organized for the front. As a result of the persistent work done by the Soviets and by all Soviet organizations; owing to the fact that in our country the state apparatus is surrounded and supported by mass organizations and thanks to the labour enthusiasm of the workers, collective farmers and intellectuals, our country is in a position to provide the Red Army and Navy armaments and munitions in such quantities and of such quality which proved to be sufficient not only to check the advance of the fascist German troops, and to cause

them heavy losses, but to drive them back as well. The whole world knows that our army is well dressed, shod and fed.

The task of the final rout of the German invaders requires still greater efforts and a mobilization of all resources from the Soviets. Still more responsible tasks have been placed before the Soviets of workers' deputies; all their activity must be totally subordinated to the task of helping the front, and the work must go on at higher speed.

The attention, the work and the energy of the Soviets is focused on the fulfilment of Stalin's directions concerning the efficient and active support of our Red Army and Navy by the whole country. It is necessary that the workers and employees "should work at their enterprises steadily and send to the front more and more tanks, anti-tank rifles and guns, planes, cannons, mine-throwers, machine guns, rifles and munitions; that the collective farmers should work in their fields tirelessly and give to the front and to the country more and more bread, meat and also raw materials for the industry."

This is the main thing. And the Soviets of workers' deputies and their executive organs render efficient help to our industry, transport and collective farms in their fulfilment of government orders and in the mobilization of every local source of raw material, fuel and equipment. The Soviets help to overcome the war time difficulties and use every measure to fulfil completely and timely the production plans.

The Soviets are paying attention to the every-day needs of the population. The city Soviets and their executive committees are directly responsible for the work of the street cars, bakeries, stores, city water and baths.

Now the country is on the eve of the spring sowing campaign, which this year will take place in conditions greatly differing from the normal ones. All the agricultural workers will be expected to show very high efficiency. To every state and collective farm and machine-and tractor station the plan for the 1942 agricultural work is a law, and the Soviets, which represent the state power in the various localities, are carrying out mea-

sures assuring a full discipline in realizing the agricultural work.

The village Soviets do very important work in preparing the collective farms for the spring sowing campaign; together with the collective farm administrations they prepare measures directed towards the enlargement of the sown area, the introduction of new grain cultures and higher grain crops. With the assistance of the village Soviets many machine- and tractor stations are rapidly repairing old parts and making new ones from scrap iron, of which large quantities may be found in any machine and tractor station, and state or collective farm.

The Soviets of the Barkov village of the Pushkin district in the Moscow region, of the Utan village of the Chernyshev district, in the Chita region, have decided to use nothing but local resources in the repairing of agricultural machinery. The Barkov village Soviet also has an agreement with the director of the neighboring factory to use its foundry for the casting of the most complicated parts necessary to repair the agricultural machinery. In exchange the village Soviet promised to help the factory in stocking up fuel.

These examples of initiative and care in preparing for the spring sowing campaign show that the Soviets have actually placed their work on a war footing and that they are trying to unload our industry to enable it to concentrate its efforts on immediate war orders.

Much work is done by the Soviets in the regions which are being liberated from the enemy. The Red Army has completely freed the Tula and Moscow regions from the German nazist invaders; the Germans are being driven from many districts of the Leningrad, Kalinin, Smolensk, Orel and other regions of the RSFSR and the Ukraine. As soon the Soviet territories are being freed from the enemy, the regional executive committees in these districts restore the Soviet power in cities and villages, they organize a service to take care of the various requirements of the population and they relieve the military command from civil duties. At the same time the Soviets are in close contact with the command of the military units and assist them in further fighting the forces of occu-

pation: they billet the troops, they supply men and material for defense work, they repair roads, airdromes and bridges, find horses and waggons for the troops etc. The executive committees of the Soviets arrange for every measure to enlarge the manufacture of armaments, equipment and munitions in local enterprises and shops; they organize the repairing of tanks, cars and war equipment—both our own and the one captured from the enemy.

The Moscow regional Soviet recently met in session and adopted a plan for the restoration of the local economy and cultural institutions in the regions recently freed from the German fascist forces of occupation. In accordance with this plan the entire practical activity of the Soviets in repairing the damage done by the Germans must be subordinated to the main task of completely routing the enemy—to produce whatever is needed for the front. Attention should be paid mainly to care for the army, providing it with arms, munitions and provisions.

The resolution adopted by the Moscow Soviet stresses the necessity for utmost care and for a maximum initiative in finding and using local resources. Thus, in preparing for the spring sowing campaign, the inner sources of the collective farms must be tapped to find the necessary seeds for grain, potatoes and vegetable planting, as well as to repair the tractors and agricultural machinery. The session approved the initiative of the collective farmers of the Kurov district, who have started to collect seeds for the collective farms which have been freed from the German occupation; it approved also the patronage on the part of some Moscow districts over the freed regions. In addition to lending much help to the rural and city population in the restoration of the collective farms and the living quarters of those who have suffered of the invasion, the Soviets are organizing on a large scale the population itself to work on the restoration of the demolished houses, schools and hospitals and to put in order the city transport and the streets.

Preserving order and discipline is one of the most important functions of the Soviet organs. Strict order is necessary in the rear, in factories and institutions, in railway stati-

ons, street cars and so on. No quarter is to be given to hooligans, thieves and speculators. Those who spread provocative rumors and panic must be dealt with mercilessly. We must be vigilant with regard to enemy agents and know how to unmask and render them harmless; here too the Soviets are of utmost importance. They are in a position to follow up law and order in the rear, because their work is supported by the broad masses.

The Soviets take great care of the wounded fighters. Nothing is too hard for them. They find fuel for the hospitals, they help in doing the necessary repairs, they organize the volunteer assistance of the population in mending the clothing, linen and footwear of the wounded men and they find work for the invalids of the war.

The timely assignment and payment of pensions and stipends to the families of Red Army men, helping them to find work, the bringing up of their children—especially the care of the war-orphans—all this constitutes a most important part of the activity of local Soviets of workers' deputies and of their executive organs.

Lenin and Stalin say that it is impossible to have fixed forms of organization and methods of work. The strength of the Soviet power, of our state apparatus and of our

democracy lies in a flexible and daring changing of the forms of work in accordance with the conditions of time and place.

In war conditions the work of any Soviet and executive committee becomes complicated and varied, especially in the regions, cities and villages lying close to the front.

Even in war-time conditions, sessions are called regularly, and at these matters of importance to the country's defense, are discussed. Such was the session of the Moscow Soviet, which was held in the days when the city was in immediate danger.

When the session is over the deputies and all the active Soviet members explain the adopted resolutions to the population and help the executive committees in their realization.

The permanent commissions have found manifold concrete forms of participation in the work of the Soviets and executive committees. The commissions of the city Soviets on trade, restaurants and dining halls, public utilities, budget and finances and social insurance greatly assist in improving the work of the trading and public utility organizations, in the fulfilment of the financial plans, the distribution of loans among the population and by helping the families of those in military service. The work of the agricultural commissions in the regional and village Soviets is of great importance when working out measures preparing the collec-



The Red Army welcomed by the population of a district freed from the German invaders

tive farms for the spring sowing campaign and realizing the state plans for the purveyance of agricultural products. Of special importance are the defense commissions of the Soviets in the organization of general military training, air and chemical defense and other defense activities.

Many active people are invited to work on the permanent commissions of the Soviets; although not regular Soviet deputies, they are of great assistance to the Soviets in preparing and carrying out the various measures.

The contact between the deputies and their electors has become even closer in war time. The deputies are leaning heavier on the active people of their electoral district, they see to it that all shortcomings be removed at once and that the initiative of the workers be supported and realized.

J. Stalin said that the strength of the Soviet regime lies in the fact that "the state apparatus does not segregate itself from the millions of the masses of the people, but is

fused with them through a countless number of mass organizations, all kinds of commissions, sections, conferences, delegates' meetings etc., which surround the Soviets and thus support the organs of power."

The perfidious attack of the German fascist bands on our sacred fatherland has made the entire Soviet people rise for the great fatherland's war. The workers, peasants and intellectuals have rallied closely around their government and their Soviets. Hard, self-sacrificing work directed to support the front is being done all over the country. Everywhere in the Soviet rear the efforts are doubled and trebled in forging the mighty arms of victory.

In this gigantic struggle the Soviets are becoming real headquarters for the mobilization of all the forces and material resources for the front and for the Red Army, to crush the enemy.



Armoured cars on reconnaissance

SCIENCE AND WAR

by Academician P. KAPITZA

THE WAR is taxing to the utmost the forces of the fighting sides. The strain extends not only to the army, but even to the entire organism of the country. The maximum output is demanded from our industry, transport and agriculture, for the larger the amount of products, munitions and armaments, which the country receives, the more resolutely shall we be moving on towards the final victory.

Exclusive effort is also called for in war-time on the part of constructive scientific thought. Factories, for instance must yield increased output, although staffs have diminished and the number of raw material sources has narrowed down. An important factor in enhancing labour-productivity is the perfecting of technology and of the processes of production, and that is why the working of inventive thought and constructive initiative is now of such outstanding value.

The necessity of easing up transport stresses the task of transferring industry to local resources which in its turn makes it necessary to find and investigate new bases of raw materials—or, in case of their absence, to seek for substitutes. It is on scientific research that the main responsibility in these searchings falls. And finally, armaments must be continually improved and in the task of creating new types of arms and of perfecting the old types the science is confronting with a series of questions which insistently call for an efficient answer.

And that is why, both with us and with our allies, the war has set before scientific workers a number of problems urgently calling for solution.

Our entire Soviet people, including our men of science, are well aware that it is only by dint of straining every effort that we shall be able with the least detriment to the country, to drive out the hateful invaders,—that this is indeed a struggle of life and death, and that under the yoke of the fascists it is not only the collective farmer who will be converted into a slave of the German landowner, but the Soviet scholar also, will forfeit the freedom of constructive work and the happiness of serving his country and world culture. This is the main idea arousing the labour enthusiasm of our men of science.

If in peace-time instances have sometimes arisen to reproach our men of learning for not always bringing their work into line with the urgent practical needs of our national economy, for the academic aloofness from real life which owing to survivals of the past was at times a distinctive feature of the scientific activities of some of our research workers,—at present things have changed. The menace of losing one's freedom, the wish to save country have inspired our scientists, and are directing their efforts to the solution of topical problems. They are doing their utmost to give prompt answers to questions brought forward by the war. I have before my own eyes the examples of some of our mathematicians who before the war were engrossed in such profound and abstract problems of mathematical theory as are accessible only to a limited circle of specialists, and are in their practical application far ahead of the demands of contemporary life—who have now successfully focussed their attention on such actual

question as the calculation of the flight of shells, or the elaboration of correct methods of shooting, taking into account the important achievements of the modern mathematical theory of probability.

The work carried on by Soviet scientists in the war-days may be divided into several classes:

Some are working on problems of wide national-economic range, such as the study of raw material bases, substitutes, utilization of by-products, etc. This work is particularly important in modern conditions, when we have lost some of our raw material bases and had to transfer our industrial centre far to the East. The special commission under the Academy of Sciences working on this question in Sverdlovsk has already achieved important results.

On the other hand, the war conditions are reducing the volume of some of our resources and the import of many kinds of raw materials. Substitutes must be sought for. It is a work of great compass and one conducted mainly by our chemists. As one of the many cases in point I shall adduce the example of balsamic ointments. It is a generally known fact that at present it is extremely difficult to receive from abroad the substance known as Peruvian balsam, a component of the healing Vishnevsky ointments, so familiar to thousands of our wounded Red Army men. At the present moment experiments are being conducted in one of the Institutes of the Academy of a new synthetic substitute for the balsam. The substitute is not a deficient one and seems in no wise inferior in point of its curative properties to Peruvian balsam.

Another sphere of our scientists' work is the extensive consulting aid they give to industry, aimed at a maximum deployment of its productive forces, the improvement of production technology, the increase of output, and a more efficient utilization of raw material resources. These consultations take up no small part of their time and are frequently of a very practical nature — a number of our scientists actually visiting the factories and helping them with their advice. So varied and all-embracing is this activity that it is even difficult to appraise it to its full extent.

And finally — the third class of work — is direct participation in war-effort — the problem of perfecting armaments and methods of defense.

We know, that the principal types of our armaments have proved themselves to be fully efficient, contrary to the expectations of ill-wishers in Western Europe who considered the conditions of capitalism to be the only ones favourable for the development of constructive inventive thought.

Comrade Stalin said that our tanks and planes were not inferior to those of the enemy. This fact is most illustrative. Our aviation industry, as everybody knows, is very young, having arisen almost entirely after the Revolution. At the outset we had, of course, to begin by studying and imitating what had already been accomplished in this domain in the West. But we had soon emerged from the period of imitation and it is now a long time since our aviation industry entered the path of independent constructiveness. It would be no exaggeration to say that it is to the Soviet scientists that the decisive role belongs in these successes of our aviation. For it is not the perfection of the modern plane almost entirely determined by the skill in calculating the profile of its wings and fuselage with a view to ensuring for the machine the least resistance in flight? This problem is one of the most complicated and interesting in modern aerodynamics. The theoretical work done along these lines by a group of young Soviet scientists trained in the school of Zhukovsky—Chaplygin has in some points considerably surpassed the achievements of Western-European research workers. Failing this theoretical background our aviation could never have achieved those successes which are enabling it to put to complete rout the enemy squadrons.

Our scientists know very well that in manufacturing armaments there can be no pausing even for an hour after successes achieved, and that only an uninterrupted improvement of our armaments can hasten the hour of our final victory, while reducing the number of victims on the way to it. In this sphere boundless vistas of possibilities open up before scientific thought. And all these possibilities are by Soviet science turned

to the promotion of war-effort. Even if this were a subject one could talk about, it were difficult to enumerate all the kinds of work large and small that have been deployed in this field and that are already yielding good results.

It is interesting to note that there is not a single domain of scientific learning which can't be useful in modern warfare. The representatives of every speciality might apply their talents to serving their country in that particular branch of science. It is not only physiologists who have to tackle new problems, such as that of enhancing the sharpness of eyesight in observers, which can be conditioned by a definite diet or by some of the medicinal remedies. Even such profoundly peaceful specialities as, for example, the study of cuneiform inscriptions may come in useful in war-time. This has been tested in the practice of the last war when it appeared that specialists in deciphering cuneiform writing and hieroglyphics were the cleverest and most skilful in interpreting enemy codes and secret cyphers. Our botanists work out new camouflage rules in conformity with the seasonal changes in the vegetable colouring, while our historians put up a successful fight with the unconscionable pseudo-scientific propaganda of the fascists, etc.

In the struggle which is now proceeding scientific thought is stimulated to an extraordinary degree. The strain caused by the war is exposing with particular acuteness the weak sides of our economy, technique and organization, while indicating with the utmost clearness the points at which help must be rendered to the state and vividly showing the public demands placed before science. And if, on the one hand, the war requires many victims and is productive of great destruction, on the other hand, the rising tide of scientific work that is sweeping the country and that is to be still further strengthened in the future will not be a lost effort even in peace-time.

The new possibilities of development for our technique and our economy as a whole which are manifesting themselves now in war-time will be turned to good account in the post-war period. This is confirmed by the experience of history. Everybody knows, for instance, that when the English blockade cut off France from her cane sugar-supplying colonies, Napoleon ordered the men of science to find new sources for obtaining sugar. And it was the systematic work of the French scientists which led up to the methods for obtaining sugar from beet, which is now the wide-spread standard process. During the imperialist war of 1914 to 1918 it was in Germany, which was feeling an acute shortage in saltpeter that was elaborated and put into large-scale practice the method of obtaining nitrogen from the air which Haber who discovered it could not bring into industry before the war. That saved Germany from a speedy defeat. It was after the war that an ammoniac synthesis became wide-spread throughout the world and became a source for obtaining an excellent fertilizer for agriculture.

A number of similar achievements must be expected to be realized in the course of the present war. The circumstance of war secrecy forbids us speaking with greater concreteness of the scientific work now being carried on in our country, but it is evident that war-conditions will lead up to further improvements in our aircraft, to the perfecting of our technical methods, and will teach us to attain greater productivity in industry with the smallest number of men — and lastly will approach our theoretical constructive thought to the country's practical demands. In the end the achievements of our country will make the whole world feel the force of Socialist economy and of all its advantages as a basis for the wide constructive development of scientific thought placed at the service of world civilization.

EVACUATED HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS AT WORK

by Prof. JOHANSON I. ZILBERFARB

I

A BRILLIANT winter's day. As far as the eye can reach, the feathery splendour of earth's snowy mantle sparkles in dazzling sunlight. The train is rushing south-eastwards across the limitless steppe, heading for a town that lies on the bank of the River Ural, the frontier of Europe and Asia. I am going to Chkalov, until recently known as Orenburg, but re-named in memory of Chkalov, the renowned Soviet pilot, the pioneer of the Moscow—North Pole—San Francisco air-route, who met an untimely death while at his post.

My object in going there is to study the life and work of the First Kharkov Medical Institute, which, as a result of the vicissitudes of the war, has been placed in new and unusual conditions in Chkalov.

I am thinking of my friends, the lecturers whom I have not seen for so long, and of the Institute itself, the medical school which, in the course of the 136 years of its existence in Kharkov, has become so widely-known.

What shall I see here in Chkalov of the old Kharkov school? What will have survived of that great Ukrainian nursery of medical science? What may have become of the main mass of Kharkov medical men—young and old? What may have become of all the students, the splendid clinics, laboratories and the rest of the centres of scientific research and study? Will I meet here but a few helpless, bewildered refugees, who deprived of all resources, all that makes creative work possible, pass the days of their exile aimlessly, in forced idleness... These are the thoughts present to my mind as I alight early one frosty morning towards the end of January at Orenburg station.

II

My doubts and fears are dispersed the first few hours, as soon as I come into contact with the life of the Kharkov Medical Institute in the new conditions. Here I see once more old friends and acquaintances among the professors, meet new people, and from my talks with them and my own observations arrive at the conclusion that here is no "university stagnating in exile," but a creative scientific centre, living a full and manysided life in spite of difficulties which at times seem well-nigh insurmountable.

I make my way slowly through the animated throng of students that fills the corridors and rooms and finally reach the office. I am met by the director of the Institute, Professor Ashot M. Gasparian, a surgeon, and learn from him how the evacuation was organized; the impression I gain from this energetic southerner's account, and from further observation, is that an extremely difficult business was carried out faultlessly and in good time.

In the second half of September, when Kharkov was in immediate danger of occupation, the planned evacuation was conducted calmly, successfully and in a perfectly organized manner. All that was more or less of value for research and study was transferred to Chkalov and the clinical equipment handed over to a military hospital; nothing was left to the enemy. Of the 148 professors and teachers 138 came to Chkalov, the rest are temporarily engaged on defense-work and are ready to rejoin the institute at the first opportunity. Hundreds of students have come here from Kharkov, and their numbers have been augmented by medicos from other evacuated towns and local people who have enrolled for the first-year course. As a result it

was found possible to open all courses on November 1st with 919 students on the roll, and to plan for the extension of the Institute to a possible enrollment of between 2,500 and 3,000.

In the course of conversation with the director and the senior lecturer, Maria Z. Bublii, I hear some very interesting details of the manner in which the Institute met and coped with the new conditions dictated by wartime.

When the Hitlerite hordes invaded our country, summer holidays had begun, but, naturally, the urgency of the situation put an end to them. Fifth-year students hurried on their preparations for graduation before the usual time. Fourth-year students took on extra practical work. About a thousand students from the other courses went to collective farms to work and over two hundred took the places of those who had left special works and factories to join the colours. Many volunteered for the Red Army, but only those having special military training were accepted. Professors, lecturers and students joined the ranks of the People's Guard, went through the course of general military training, took an active part in the organization of local Air-Raid precautions and other defense measures. When the front was approaching Kharkov, about 700 medical students united with the many thousands of working people engaged in fortifying the approaches to the town. On the eve of evacuation a special emergency graduation exercises of young doctors were held at the Institute. On reaching its new premises the Institute lost no time in organizing every branch of its work in such a way as to yield the maximum results required by national defense.

I spent five days in observing the work in the various branches and supplementary institutions and in talking to professors, students and laboratory assistants.

I should like to point out first of all that, in spite of the very formidable difficulties, the Institute has contrived to arrange and conduct according to plan not only the usual courses and the practical work done externally but also its many-sided researches. Theses for degrees have been prepared as well; in the last two months three of them have been publicly defended with success.

In the absence of premises concentrated on a small area and suitable for so large and complex an organism as a modern medical school, maximum rational use is being made of the 35 rooms allotted for lectures and classes.

Local hospitals have been turned into clinics for this institute; in addition, the otolaryngological and neurological clinics have been set up again. Teachers are sometimes faced with difficulties arising out of general wartime conditions; for example, Prof. Georgi V. Folbort, of the Chair of Normal Physiology, told me that the shortage of animals for experiment made it impossible to teach students the physiological processes by the usual methods. Other methods involving the wide use of models and apparatus had to be introduced. This, as may be supposed, is very inconvenient and makes teaching much harder. Experience has shown, however, that it is quite possible to make it as effective as in normal conditions, and wherever the equipment at the disposal of one department or another proves insufficient, the teachers endeavour to make up for shortcomings and show their powers of inventiveness. An outstanding example is the work of Alexander A. Otelin, the lecturer in charge of the department of normal anatomy; he is a pupil and successor of Prof. Vladimir Vorobiev, Member of the Academy of Sciences, the prominent anatomist whose knowledge and skill made it possible to preserve the body of Lenin.

The staff of the First Kharkov Medical Institute is doing a great deal of consultational work in the various hospitals and clinics (particularly the military hospitals) in the town of Chkalov and the surrounding district. Prof. Alexander Zeitlin, who is in charge of the surgery department of the Institute, fills at the same time the post of Head Surgeon in the Evacuation-Hospital Section of the Chkalov District Health Department. The local training-school for doctors' dressers, midwives, and nurses is now under the patronage of the Kharkov Medical Institute. Excellent work is being done to raise the qualifications of the Chkalov doctors, who take the greatest interest in the regular demonstration-lectures in comparative clinical-anatomy, the scientific conferences

held by the Institute and the inter-hospital conferences organized by the District Health Department and Evacuation-Centre in which the Kharkov professors take an active and leading part. They have brought with them to Chkalov the finest traditions of the Kharkov medical circles, organized here a medical society and are founding permanent higher medical courses.

III

When I first became acquainted with the activities of the First Kharkov Medical Institute in the new conditions, I was struck by the fact that, trying as these conditions were, the Institute has not interrupted its research work, but carries on investigations of not only great practical value, but of wide theoretical importance as well.

A variety of subjects have come up for scientific study here, — and all departments share in this work. The spirit of coordination and cooperation shown by representatives

of various specialities has led to urgent questions being studied from every aspect. As may be expected, research at the present time is concentrated around problems of vital importance for the defense of the country — problems of war-traumatism, war-therapy and epidemic infection.

Names known to specialists far beyond our frontiers are to be found among the professors of this Institute. The valuable work done by Daniel Alpern, David Ferdman, Victor Protopopov and Georgi Folbort was recognized and awarded by the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian Republic, which elected them corresponding-members.

Professor Folbort was one of Pavlov's most brilliant pupils and closest collaborators. From 1906 onwards he worked with the great Russian physiologist; they were in constant touch with each other until the Pavlov's death. The main problem around which Folbort's researches are concentrated is that of the physiology of the processes of exhaustion and restoration of health. These



The tank landing-party attacking

researches, which are of great theoretical importance for a proper understanding of the vital processes taking place in the human organism, were formerly carried out exclusively on animals. Now, however, as Professor Folbort tells me, it has become possible to begin to conduct them on man, thus developing the study of the problem without lowering the high theoretical level of the researches, but directing them towards practical application. Thanks to scientific cooperation with clinical work, the physiology of the processes of exhaustion and recuperation in wounded patients, especially in cases of trauma of the nervous system, can be studied and conclusions drawn that are of value in hospital practice in general and field-hospitals, in particular. At the same time Professor Folbort is making an experimental study, conjointly with the histologists, of the processes of restoration in the blood, a study which, not to mention its theoretical significance, may yield results of considerable importance for blood-transfusion.

No less interesting is the work done by Professor Alpern in the field of pathological physiology. In his study of the part played by chemical factors of nervous excitation in the organs, this scientist took as his starting-point the data contained in the well-known works of Walter Cannon, the American physiologist, and of H. Dale, the English scholar and Nobel prize winner. But the Kharkov scientist has taken his work farther than his predecessors, and conducted experiments not only upon animals but also on people, in pathological and not in normal states. Now, other demands arise out of war-time conditions and to meet these Professor Alpern is concentrating his researches on the chemical factors of nervous excitation in pathological states like traumatic shock, infection from wounds, and burns. These are being carried out conjointly with the clinics and have already yielded practical results in healing; some new and special organotherapeutic medicines have been prepared in this connection.

Professor Protopopov, well-known for his researches in the field of higher nervous activity, is one of the school of that famous Russian psychiatrist, Professor Vladimir Bechterev, Member of the Academy of

Sciences. He has long since founded his own school, and is engaged for the most part in the study of the somatic symptoms of reactive states. At present he is occupied with researches in the external signs of the consequences produced by trauma of a psychological nature inflicted by war-experiences. Besides these, he devotes some time to researches that are being found of great assistance in the selecting of pilots. The tests conducted according to Professor Protopopov's method in special baro-camera, enable the experimenters to expose latent symptoms of certain mental diseases, to weed out the sufferers, from these and thus help to reduce the possibility of air-disasters.

An entirely different field, but one in which his researches have proved no less fruitful in practical and theoretical results is Professor Ferdman's. This gifted bio-chemist is particularly interested in the problem of vitamins. On his arrival in Chkalov he brought forward the question of using local resources for the production of foods rich in vitamins. In the person of Alexei Komarov, Director of the Chkalov District Department of the Administration of Drug-stores, he found an enthusiastic and efficient supporter. Organized laboratory researches yielded excellent results and led to the production of tablets with a high Vitamin "C" content from local sweet-brier, as well as poly-vitaminous flour from wheat-kernels. These new foodproducts are found to be of high nutritive value for sick and wounded, convalescents and children.

The researches I have just described of these four professors of the First Kharkov Medical Institute are only a part of the varied and extensive research work that is being carried on there today by its scientific forces.

IV

In order to appreciate the activity of the Institute it is not sufficient, I think, to consider its class-work and scientific research *per se*. Of great importance here is the connection between the Institute and the life around it, a connection that is not only general and theoretical but also concrete, practical and a regular, everyday matter. That is why I re-

solved, as I was looking into the work of the Institute, that I would talk to the leading People in the Chkalov District and find out what part it played in the life of the town and surrounding district.

The leading local organizations acknowledge that the many-sided activity of the evacuated Institute has to a large extent contributed, and is contributing, to the raising of the level of public health in Chkalov and throughout the district. Herein lies the service of the Institute as a whole, and particularly of some of its departments and clinics. Besides the examples given of the practical scientific work done by some professors (in addition to the ordinary work of the Institute), it should be pointed out that the presence of a large new scientific and medical centre in Chkalov and the opportunity it affords of preparing new contingents of doctors on the spot, promises still more noticeable results in future. The energy and self-sacrificing way in which the evacuated scientists and doctors are working in the new place and new conditions, evokes profound respect and sincere admiration. "They're splendid!" the mayor exclaimed in summing up our conversation on that subject, "they work like Trojans and never grumble."

What I saw and heard during my sojourn in Chkalov was not fortuitous. The First Kharkov Medical Institute is not an isolated instance, an exception, but a typical example of the life of the Soviet college and university in wartime conditions. The high standard of its fruitful work in the new situation is a proof that Soviet scientists remain undaunted by the circumstances of the war and devote their energies whole heartedly to the service of their country in any conditions. The Hitlerites boasted in their arrogance that the

Ukraine and some other regions of the USSR, the most populous, the most highly developed industrially and otherwise, were now in their hands. But actually this is not the case. All that the German aggressors have succeeded in seizing temporarily has been — territory. The rest — the factories, mills, works, the livestock and equipment of the collective farms, scientific, art, and other cultural institutions, were evacuated in good time and began work in the new places at once.

A striking instance of the continuance and intensive development of creative work in new conditions is seen in the activity of the First Kharkov Medical Institute at Chkalov. It shows us how the Ukrainian intelligentsia, as a public-spirited section of the Ukrainian people, not only refused to remain on territory temporarily in the hands of the enemy, but, departing for a distant town in the east, took root easily in the new soil, to carry on their work far away from home. That is because the soil here at the threshold of the Urals is, like that of the Ukraine, Soviet soil, and therefore the scientist of the Soviet Ukraine whose destiny brings him here for a time, cannot feel himself a stranger in a strange land. With the rest of the Soviet people he gives, in spite of great the difficulties he encounters, all his energies, all his knowledge, to the achieving of victory over Hitlerism. The day will come when, the Soviet territory that has been temporarily seized will be free once more and the doctors and scholars of the Kharkov Medical Institute will return home to restore this home and inscribe new brilliant pages in the glorious annals of Soviet medical work, in the glorious history of Soviet science and culture. That day, I hope and believe, is not far off.

SUVOROV

by Prof. N. KOROBKOV

Suvorov chiefly was on the alert,
Surveying, drilling, ordering, jesting, pondering,
For the man was, we safely may assert,
A thing to wonder at beyond most wondering.

Byron, "Don Juan"

I

SUVOROV began his military career in the Semenov regiment of Life Guards. It was in those gloomy times when the foreign commanders with whom the Russian army was inundated did their best to turn the soldier into a gorgeously uniformed marching automaton. The system depressed the soldiers both physically and morally, thus sapping the strength of the army. The finer type of Russian commander was beginning to understand the perniciousness of this system of training. "The men are superb, but they are poor soldiers," wrote General Rzhevsky. "They are neatly and splendidly apparelled, but they are so strapped in and compressed, that they are not even in a condition to perform their natural functions: they cannot stand or sit or walk in comfort."

"In order that the soldier should not bend his knees when marching, splints were tied around them; and, generally, the soldier was so clothed that if we were laid flat on the ground, he would be totally unable to get up unaided," recalled another contemporary, General Khrushchov.

The Russian cavalry had poorly trained mounts, and the riders were unable to keep line when in rapid motion. No attention was paid to this, but, on the other hand, that clause in the cavalry regulations which provided that the cuirasseurs and carabineers should grow moustaches and "brush them upwards and stain them," was punctiliously observed. Soldiers without moustaches had to affix false ones to their chins when going on sentry duty or parade.

This passion for splendour and effect on the parade ground eclipsed all other considerations. Little attention was paid to the training

of the army for battle. Peter I's system of instruction in "various turns" gradually went out of use. "In a word, the outward appearance of the troops was splendid, and it could not have been otherwise, for a soldier who was untidy or who did not possess the desired figure was beaten to death."

The Empress Elizabeth made several attempts to restore Peter's system in the army; but neither she nor her entourage had the strength or ability to achieve their object. All they could effect was certain partial improvements.

Nevertheless, here and there, in the army and among the finer representatives of society, the conviction prevailed that the soldier was, after all, a human being and the defender of the country, and not a mercenary who had voluntarily sold himself for hire. Saltykov, who replaced Fermor in 1759, showed quite considerable concern for the army and the soldier, whom he distinguished from the West-European type. "Our men are not mercenaries," he wrote to Shuvalov, arguing the unpardonableness of unnecessary risks. Field-Marshal P. A. Rumyantsev, a talented Russian general, writing in his memoirs in 1777, spoke of the specific characteristics of the Russian army, and said that it should only borrow from West-European practice that which was "fitting," in other words, that which suited its own specific character. Unlike the Western theoreticians, he regarded the army as an offshoot of the people which happened to be at the disposal of the realm, and thought it necessary "highly to respect the source, which to this day is the only one we have for the maintenance of the strength of the

army. And by that I mean the people, which supplies both the men for the army and the money."

Many of Suvorov's contemporaries appreciated the value of the soldier as a fighting unit and as an individual. "The soldiers are a treasure, that must not be idly sacrificed. . . The whole of Ochakov is not worth the precious lives that have been squandered so recklessly," wrote Potemkin after the first reverse at Ochakov.

After the Seven Years' War, and on the basis of the experience gained therein, the Russian army was reorganized. Of the prominent military administrators of the period, the most memorable today are Rumyantsev, Potemkin, Suvorov and Panin.

The army was increased in strength. The regiments were made numerically uniform. The General Staff was reformed. The status, rights and duties of commanding officers were defined. New regulations were introduced for the cavalry and the infantry. The line formation was preserved, but the double rank was introduced (Suvorov, incidentally, retained the old and more massive triple-rank formation in his units). At the same time, the system of movement and attack in column began to be employed, and we note the first signs of the tactics of formation in depth. A transitional form to the latter was the "square," which was of various dimensions, down to small battalions and even companies.

A corps of chasseurs was formed as well as special chasseur detachments, trained for action in skirmishing order and for rapid and accurate firing. The cavalry was considerably strengthened and improved. In the 1770's the antiquated heavy cavalry was abolished (but later restored). The artillery was made more mobile and more uniform in calibre. It was augmented by pioneers (sappers), and its action was coordinated with that of the other arms.

Considerable attention was paid to drill and training—of the officers as well as the rank and file. Talented generals appeared to head the army. Most prominent among them was P. A. Rumyantsev, to whom Suvorov several times referred as his teacher.

Quite a number of Suvorov's military contemporaries belonged to the same school as himself. Many of them later served under



**Captain B. Safonov, Hero of the Soviet Union,
awarded by the British Government for
gallantry**

him. Together with his younger disciples, among whom he distinguished Bagration and Kutuzov, they comprised that galaxy of "Catherine's eagles" to which Russian military history owes many of its most brilliant pages.

Like every genius, Suvorov was exceptional, and, as he himself admitted quite "original" and unique. A son of his society and times, he grew up and developed in the Russian army. His principles evolved out of the conditions which actually existed in the army and out of his own military "practice." His views on the army and his tactical principles contained nothing that was not in one degree or another analogous to the views of his predecessors and contemporaries. But just as a lens concentrates the separate rays into a powerful beam, so Suvorov with unparalleled power and precision, synthesized, systematized,

zed and expressed that which before him had been only partially and imperfectly understood.

In Rumyantsev, who followed the path marked out by Peter I, Suvorov had a splendid predecessor, who had founded and given effect to a number of principles of national strategy and tactics. Suvorov perfected these principles and welded them organically into a simple, clear and integral system, which sprang from the practice of war and served as its foundation.

Suvorov's strategy was national, just as his own character was profoundly national. Engels' description of this "old soldier" as an "arch-Russian general" is perfectly apt.

II

It was a common practice in Russia in the 18th century for the sons of the nobility to be enrolled while still infants in some regiment as privates.

Owing to the frail state of his son's health Suvorov's father did not follow this practice. It was not until Alexander was twelve years old, that, under the pressure of General Hannibal, his father enrolled him as a private in the Semenov regiment of Life Guards. When Suvorov joined his regiment he had to serve for a long time, if not as a actual private, at least as a non-commissioned officer. It was not until 1754 that he was promoted to officer's rank. Many an aristocratic scion of his own age far outstripped him in the service.

Suvorov studied his profession scrupulously, "from the foundation up," as Peter I had demanded, and was an exemplary soldier. While not renouncing the customary privileges enjoyed by nobles in the regiment, he formed close contacts with the rank and file; he understood and sympathized with the common soldier's mentality and conceived a high regard for him. He appreciated the close solidarity that welded the soldier masses, their deep-seated sense of comradeship and mutual support, their faculty for self-sacrifice on behalf of their country or of a fellow-soldier, and their bravery, which went to the lengths of a regular contempt for their own lives. Suvorov himself was built of similar stuff. He never spared

his health or feared to risk his life. He was several times severely wounded in battle.

The bravery of the common soldier and his never-failing confidence in victory opened the eyes of the young Suvorov to the absurdity of the principles inculcated in the army by doctrinaires educated in the theories of the West, theories which had been derived from the experience of the unprincipled mercenary armies. Those generals whose horizon was limited to tactics of the line and who pinned their faith solely on firearms thought to defeat the enemy by the mere weight of fire of a deployed line in which each man, even when drilled to perfection, was only capable of firing five shots a minute, just as in the time of King Frederic II.

Rumyantsev had already recognized the imperfections of the tactics of the line and in addition, had a fine understanding of the Russian soldier. While he did not reject the formation in line entirely, he had begun to resort to open rifle formations, or sometimes to compact masses of columns, or to squares, which were something intermediate between formation in line and formation in depth. This was the right path. Suvorov followed it, and thanks to his genius, was able to discard the hesitations that had hampered Rumyantsev and to carry his ideas to their logical conclusion.

The social and national uniformity of the soldier masses, who were recruited almost entirely from among the Great Russians¹, resulted in a solidarity which it was difficult to break, and which only grew stronger as the danger increased. From this Suvorov drew the simple conclusion that what was necessary for victory was compact action. But the fire of infantry, and especially of artillery, seemingly constituted an obstacle to this.

However, a careful study of the action of firearms led to the definite conclusion that the zone of the protection they offered in those days was extremely limited. The effective zone of the enemy's field artillery

¹ It was not until the third quarter of the 18th century that recruits for the army began to be drawn from other than the Great Russian provinces. Prior to that the military formations in the Ukraine, the Urals and Siberia constituted a "militia" and did not form part of the regular army.

lay at a distance of 160 metres from his front (with a width of only 10—15 paces), and of his regimental artillery at a distance of 120 metres. The effective zone of the enemy's small arms stretched to within only 60 paces from his front. But infantry could traverse this distance at the run in 20 seconds and under, and cavalry even faster. In this interval, each of the enemy's men could fire not more than two shots. Under these circumstances, given equal and even inferior armament, but greater concentration of forces, the issue would be decided by the vigour of the assault and the use of cold steel. Bearing in mind the moral strength of his army, on the one hand, and the general superiority of its armaments, on the other, Suvorov arrived at the only correct solution, namely, that the bayonet was the decisive weapon of victory.

The value of the bayonet was enhanced by the fact that to maintain an army supplied with ammunition while on the march was no easy matter. Every rifleman carried with him only twenty cartridges, while another thirty cartridges per man followed in the baggage train. It frequently happened that the stock of cartridges was expended in the very first engagements, without any hope of replenishment. "Make your cartridges last three days, and if necessary for the whole campaign, for no more can be got. Shoot rarely and always with good aim," Suvorov demanded. While considering cold steel the decisive weapon, he did not despise small arms, but used them sparingly, avoiding volleys wherever possible, and insisting on individual sharpshooting.

"The Russian's leaders are the bayonet, dash and surprise," "Infantry fire opens the way to victory; the bayonet dispatches those that rashly assault the square; the sabre and spear consummate victory and the final pursuit," said Suvorov.

Tactics, a knowledge of which Suvorov considered obligatory for every soldier, were in his opinion based upon "three military arts." The first was "eye judgment," that is, the ability to determine quickly and unerringly "where to strike camp, how to march, and how to attack, pursue and destroy." The second was "speed: the enemy will not escape us even if he is a hundred versts



Tommy-gunner, Caucasian Meldzikhov, Hero of the Soviet Union

away and if he is further still—two hundred, three hundred or more—we will fall upon him like a bolt from the blue..." The third was "dash—attack with cold steel; infantry, go to it with the bayonet, the cavalry will not be far off!.. But see that formation is maintained everywhere! In the final victory, let the cavalry pursue, hacking right and left. If the cavalry does its job, the infantry will not fall short."

The soldier knows that he is fighting for Russia; but he should also be told the purpose of each individual operation. "It is not enough for the higher officers to be informed of the plan of action. It is also necessary that the junior commanders should know it in order to lead their troops in conformity with it. Nay more, even the battalion, squadron and company commanders should be acquainted with it; and, by the same token, the non-commissioned officers and privates as well. Every fighting man should understand the manœuvre in which he is taking part."

Both officers and privates who are striving for victory and who clearly understand their tasks in the operations are entitled and obliged, within the limits of strict discipline, to display initiative "with intelligence and skill and in the consciousness of their answerability."

Trained in these principles, the Russian army was a live, active and purposeful organism, splendidly adapted for vigorous action. It was the very antithesis of the Prussian army, which was the model of soullessness, a fighting machine operating with the precision of clockwork, without initiative, and in blind obedience to its commanders.

Suvorov's work in training and educating the Russian army, his astonishing skill in rousing it at the needed moment to a supreme exertion of its strength and potentialities, will remain an example for all time.

The decisive thing in warfare, in Suvorov's opinion, was to destroy the enemy's manpower. This was to be achieved, not by slow and passive tactics, but by a swift offensive in the decisive quarter, by a lightning blow and by the unrelenting pursuit of the routed enemy. "The true maxim of the military art," he taught, "is to attack the enemy outright in his most vulnerable spot, and not to seek contact with him by timidly advancing along by-ways, as the result of which the attack itself becomes highly complicated, whereas the issue may be decided only by a bold and direct offensive." The successive blows must not be relaxed or retarded for a moment until the enemy is utterly routed, for "only by striking rapidly, unwearingly and ceaselessly, blow after blow, and reducing the enemy to confusion, will he be deprived of all possibility of recovery."

When defensive tactics are unavoidable, they must not be of a passive character; at the first opportunity a counter-offensive must be launched and the successes developed. Retreat was something Suvorov even refused to recognize. "I guarded the hearing, sight and souls of my soldiers from every semblance of retreat," he said. Dragomirov tells us that Suvorov considered it superfluous to train his soldiers in methods of retreat, for if the unfortunate necessity should arise, retreat would be better effected by troops

who were accustomed to look upon it as a disgrace and deep humiliation.

Swiftiness of advance was of the highest importance. "The adversary believes you are a hundred or two hundred versts away; but you increase your step to a giant stride and fall upon him swiftly and suddenly." The rapidity of Suvorov's marches is amazing. In 1769, the 420 versts march from Minsk to Lopshintz (near Brest) was accomplished in eleven stages—an average of 39 versts per day; in 1770, when marching on Stolovichi, he covered 300 versts in ten days; in 1789, hastening to join forces with Prince Coburg (from Berlad to Ajud), the Russians marched 50 versts in 28 hours.

Naturally, these swift and long marches, often in unexpected directions, were possible only when the army was victualled by the requisitioning system. However, Suvorov always took care that the requisitions should not acquire an arbitrary character. "See that the civilians do not suffer," he enjoined on his soldiers; "they supply our food and drink." At the same time, in order to insure the uninterrupted supply of his army, Suvorov gave great care to the proper organization and distribution of magazines, although he never allowed his being cut off from them to serve as a deterrent to his movements. The proper provisioning of his army was one of his primary concerns: even on the swiftest and most unexpected marches, when the troops halt for rest "their cauldrons are to be on the fire and their food and wine ready—so that there is not a tired man among them" (from the Instructions of 1799).

One fundamental requisite of success was the maximum concentration of forces at the point of attack. "When you set out to smite the foe, multiply your troops, strip all posts and communications." "What is needed... is united, coordinated and simultaneous action... on the part of the troops"; "it is better to keep the troops combined than to undertake other, auxiliary operations."

The general complex of conditions must be studied and the main striking point must be selected in such a way as not to leave the enemy any opportunity of retreat, let alone a "golden" one. This ability instantaneously

to weigh up a situation, to make a full and correct orientation, and to draw the proper conclusion from it is what Suvorov called "eye judgment." If there were several bodies of the enemy, they were to be attacked one by one and each by superior forces (as at Rimnik and Stolovich). The defeated enemy must be pursued and completely destroyed or captured.

Like Napoleon, Suvorov attached the utmost importance to a correct evaluation of the theatre of hostilities and of the enemy. His maxim was not to despise the enemy under any circumstances, whoever he might be, and to make a thorough study of his weapons, his methods of using them and his manner of fighting. He was a strong believer in careful reconnaissance, but never postponed decisive action on the plea that the situation was not fully clear.

The orders of battle adopted in Suvorov's army were highly variegated and represented a complex system of formations, varying according to circumstances and combining the two extremes: the line *ordre de bataille* of the 18th century, and formations of the type employed by Napoleon at Austerlitz. We not infrequently find Suvorov using formations in line, and moreover, of the more massive and archaic triple-rank type which had been abolished by Rumyantsev's regulations. "In double rank there is strength; but in triple rank there is strength and a half" Suvorov used to say. "The front rank pierces, the second crushes, the third consumes." When he encountered a foe who possessed strong cavalry, Suvorov resorted to an extraordinarily flexible and mobile system of squares, even down to the smallest dimensions—comprising a single battalion or even a single company.

There is a belief that Suvorov borrowed the rifle file (or skirmishing order) from the American war of liberation. That is not true. Skirmishing order, in the shape of advanced rifle files, was employed in the Russian army long before the American war. It was adopted by Rumyantsev as early as 1761, at Colberg. In 1770, the riflemen assigned for this purpose were formed into special chasseur battalions. At the same time, each of Suvorov's regiments had its own regimental riflemen. The riflemen played an important part not



"Tanya of the Partisans" (Zoe Kosmodemyanskaya), Hero of the Soviet Union, tortured to death by the Hitlerites

only in the initial stages of battle, but also in the pursuit of the routed enemy. Thus, at Airolo, Bagration, having attacked and overwhelmed the enemy, dispatched in pursuit of him "a fairly considerable number of advanced rifle chasseurs."

Order of line was combined with skirmishing order, as well as with the typical formation in depth, which had been introduced into the Russian army long before the French Revolution. Advance in columns, for instance, was employed by Suvorov as early as 1773 (second foray against Turtuca). Of immense importance were the reserves, which Suvorov employed with extraordinary skill.

Diversive movements and feints, as independent manoeuvres were held in high esteem by the military leaders of the 18th century. Suvorov called them a "game for military tyros." Nevertheless, he constantly made use of them as a means of disorienting

his opponent and diverting his forces, prior to a decisive attack. In the third variant of the plan for the offensive against the Riviera, we find it explicitly stated that "the army shall by continuous feints and reconnoitres lead the enemy astray." At Novi, a feigned frontal attack was effected with such vigour that the commander in charge of it, General Krai, was convinced that he had been assigned the decisive attack. A feint, and a very costly one at that, was made by Orlov's and Platov's Cossacks at Ismail, while at Prague, Buxgevden's column was used for a similar purpose.

All his life, often at the cost of considerable unpleasantness and to the detriment of his career, Suvorov insisted on independence of command. "Two men cannot wield one axe", he said as far back as 1770. Yet, for all his efforts, he was unable to secure even a semblance of that freedom of action which was enjoyed by Napoleon or Frederick. Even his last and most brilliant campaign, owing to the constant interference of the Hofkriegsrat, was not completed in the way the old generalissimo had planned it. Like Napoleon, Suvorov regarded a plan of war only as a rough draft, the concrete details of which were to be filled in as the campaign itself developed. "The opening of my operations will and should depend solely on the circumstances of the time, which, in accordance with ancient habit, the Viennese Hofkriegsrat appoints in conformity with ideal political considerations. The consequent endless military reverses, which have dimmed the glory of Austrian arms, have not yet taught it the incontrovertible truth that the issue of a battle sometimes hangs on a single instant," wrote Suvorov in his report from Asti on August 27, 1799.

For a long time, Western military historians and theoreticians looked upon Suvorov as a man of vast but undeveloped capacities. Such was the opinion for instance of Giomini, Dumas, Tiers and Stuterheim. They were all influenced by Napoleon's estimate of Suvorov: "Marshal Suvorov had the soul but not the head of a great general. He was endowed with a strong will, immense energy and indomitable fearlessness, but he possessed neither genius nor a knowledge of the military art... He acted without plan or

calculation." Such was Napoleon's expressed opinion of Suvorov's operations in the Italian and Swiss campaigns. It was simply based on an ignorance of the true state of affairs and of the part played by the Hofkriegsrat, which acted as a fetter on Suvorov's initiative. Napoleon was not acquainted with the generalissimo's real plans.

Nor was Suvorov understood by Clausewitz, who could not but admit that he was a fine military leader, but considered him "ein roher Naturalist" (which, in effect, chimed with Napoleon's opinion). Clausewitz declined to give a more precise evaluation of Suvorov as he did not consider himself "properly equipped to paint a more detailed portrait of that astonishing personality."

But, as a matter of fact, the definition which Napoleon gave of a great general fits Suvorov in every particular. "The military man," Napoleon said, "must have as much strength of will as intelligence. Men of great intelligence but of weak will are least of all suited for this profession. It is better to have greater strength of will and less intelligence... Military leaders with vast intelligence and corresponding strength of will were Caesar, Hannibal, Turenne, Prince Eugene and Frederick." There is more reason and justification for including Suvorov and Napoleon himself in this list than Frederick. Suvorov's strength of will was so outstanding and so impressed his French opponents, during the Italian and Swiss campaigns, for example, that even the Russian military historians came to consider that Suvorov's characteristic feature as a general lay in his inflexible will.

But one cannot agree with the opinion of these historians. Excess strength of will is bound to lead to blunders, and blunders mean defeat. How is this to be reconciled with the fact that Suvorov, alone of the three great generals of his time, never suffered a direct defeat, whereas Frederick in the Seven Years' War, for example, out of sixteen big battles, lost eight, while one (Zorndorf) ended in a stalemate? Even Napoleon was not exempt from blunders and defeats (in Russia, for example).

General Moreau, who in Italy experienced the weight of Suvorov's military genius to his cost, placed him "on a level with Napo-

leon," while Masséna, who shared a similar fate in Switzerland, said that he "Would have exchanged all his campaigns for one campaign of Suvorov's—the Swiss," the one which was most severely criticized even by the Russian military historians. While this was the opinion of the Russian general held by prominent representatives of the new, revolutionary strategy of the West who encountered him on the field of battle, the brilliance of his generalship (in Poland, in 1771) was also admitted by the most typical representative of the old classical strategy of the 18th century, Frederick II, Napoleon's attitude towards men was that of a chess player towards pieces and pawns, or of a mathematician towards a quantity. Suvorov's attitude was simpler and more human. It is related that Suvorov, wanting to save Warsaw from the vengeance of his soldiers, who remembered how one night, four months earlier, the Poles had treacherously cut the throats of the peacefully sleeping Russian garrison, ordered the bridges across the Visla to be dismantled. The aim had been achieved: Warsaw surrendered without further resistance.

Writing of the attack on Prague, Suvorov said: "At the beginning of the Polish campaign the peace-loving field-m Marshals gave all their time and efforts to the establishment of magazines. Their plan was to fight three years... What bloodshed! And who could vouch for the future?... I achieved peace and put an end to the bloodshed at one blow." In this observation, which was utterly incomprehensible to the West-European generals of the 18th century, we have the real and correct justification of the strategy of demolition: once war is inevitable, it must be waged swiftly and decisively. And this, of course, was the only correct strategy.

III

Suvorov entertained a profound disgust for the "army asses," the doctrinaire generals, the "wretched academicians," who were to be found in such abundance both in the Austrian and Prussian and in the Russian armies, and who endeavoured to find explanations for the great general's unbroken



Ilya Kusun, leader of a partisan detachment,
Hero of the Soviet Union

record of victory. Seeing that Suvorov's methods could not be fitted into the framework of military theory, and even contradicted it, they attributed his invariable successes to luck, to fortune. In this the Russian "army asses" were at one with Emperor Franz, in reference to one of whose rescripts Suvorov once remarked: "Luck today, luck tomorrow... Heavens, allow something for intelligence!"

Suvorov was of the firm opinion that the human intelligence should bend circumstances to its own ends. "I was lucky because I commanded luck," he said towards the end of his life. Napoleon said in reference to himself: "Fortune serves great men because great men bend her to their will."

The prime and essential conditions for mastering life, circumstances and fortune are "stubborn and intelligent industry, and a proper and economical expenditure of time. I was always industrious, and always sparing of the most precious thing on earth—time, both in my wider field of activities and in

my seclusion, which I always took advantage of," Suvorov wrote on December 28, 1794, to Count Fabrician, who was collecting material for his biography. When not at war, Suvorov devoted all his time to reading and the study of questions that interested him. His field of knowledge was very wide and by no means confined to military matters, and he was always enlarging it. He studied geography and history and, unlike Napoleon, was interested in philosophy. Partly when he was already an old man, he taught himself French, German, Italian, Polish, Turkish, Tatar and Finnish. His knowledge of military matters was universal. In the course of his military career, he commanded the most diverse units, made topographical surveys, drew up plans of frontier fortifications and built fortresses, commanded a fleet and directly supervised sanitary measures, fought in mountains and plains and on the sea, and was victorious against regular armies and against guerrillas.

Before undertaking any matter, he made a thorough and exhaustive study of it. In one of his orders-of-the day of 1770, as though in answer to those who considered that he possessed genius of soul, but not of brain or knowledge, Suvorov says: "Although bravery, vigour and courage are essential everywhere and under all circumstances, they are useless if they do not spring from art." "A general,—he says in another place,—must educate himself in the sciences." "You must fight not so much with numbers as with brains." What he demanded above all from his disciples and followers was study.

"Constantly widen your knowledge by reading,—he said,—First the rudiments: *L'école de Mars* and, for the sole six orders of battle, old Vegetius. There is little written on the Russian wars; in the earlier and the last Turkish wars great stress is laid on evolutions. As to the ancient wars, read whatever you can lay hands on. Montecuccoli is very antiquated and much has now been abolished; he should be read in the light of the rules of the recent Turkish war. Read Charles of Lorraine, Condé, Turenne, Marshal de Saxe and Villars in whatever translations there are. The ancient writings which stimulate courage are: The Trojan Wars, Caesar's

Commentaries and Quintus Curtius. For elevation of soul, read old Rollin."

Suvorov was one of the best students of military history of his time, and most of his comments on contemporary military theories were witty and extremely apt. He did not find anything in them worthy of serious attention. The academic theories of Lloyd, Bülow and Lassy, which predominated Western Europe in the latter half of the 18th century, and which in the eyes of the Russian military doctrinaires were the height of perfection, were utterly foreign to him. Like Napoleon, he scoffed at them.

On the other hand, the Prussian and Austrian theoreticians and their Russian followers would not, and could not, appreciate Suvorov. They held that his tactics were crude, barbarous and antiquated. His penchant for swift advances and bayonet charges by concentrated masses, and his contempt for arm-chair plans, seemed to them to be prompted by lack of knowledge, intelligence and military culture.

Suvorov rejected the academic theories of the West-European experts, avoided all unwarranted imitation, and based himself on the actual conditions of his army. As a result, his plans were always clear, simple and integral. And, as Napoleon said, "simplicity is the prime requisite of a good manoeuvre." At the same time, Suvorov never elevated his precepts to a dogma, to an "eternal truth." "Circumstances change," he said, "just as weapons change." But Suvorov's national strategy was the most natural for his time, for his army, and for its weapons; and it was therefore the best.

There are many accounts testifying to Suvorov's extraordinarily profound and subtle understanding of state interests. Left to govern Poland after he had subjugated it, he revealed himself a wise and human statesman. Whereas Frederick immediately instituted a harsh regime and ruthless economic exploitation in the territories he conquered, Suvorov began by proclaiming a general amnesty.

This leniency evoked the displeasure of the government in St. Petersburg, but by its means Suvorov pacified the unhappy country which had just passed through a catastrophe. "You may be consoled,—wrote Orlovsky, the

commandant of Warsaw, to the captive Kosciusko,—by the magnanimity and moderation of the victors towards the vanquished. If they continue to act in this way you will find that our people, if one may judge by their character, will conceive a strong attachment for the victors. "At the same time, Suvorov did not lose sight of Russian interests, and persistently interfered in the most diverse fields of the political, civil and ecclesiastical life of Poland.

Suvorov displayed extreme tact in Italy, where he left a very fine impression. In the Crimea he conducted himself as a firm and experienced military diplomat.

Suvorov could not tolerate the court and court intrigues. He preferred to avoid politics altogether, and, declaring that "all other talents were foreign" to him but those of a general, confined himself to the military field.

Inasmuch as Suvorov took no share in political leadership, his opportunities for displaying his strategical talents in the wide sense of the term were limited. Such was the case during his splendid Italian campaign, when his strategical plans were mutilated, not so much by the Military Council, as by the Hofkriegsrat he so detested.

Only in the sphere of tactics did Suvorov enjoy relative freedom. But even here his independence was won at the cost of a hard fight, involving official unpleasantnesses, transfers, and even loss of his command. But here he would not, and could not, compromise. And that is why it was precisely in this sphere that his genius was most fully and brilliantly revealed.

Outside of his military occupations, life had no meaning or interest for Suvorov. As soon as he was divorced from practical military activities, he was overcome by tedium and unrest.

Mention must be made of Suvorov's fine sense of humor, which was keenly appreciated by his soldiers. As General Wavell justly remarks, humour is a quality rarely to be met with in great generals. Only one great military leader possessed a sense of humour, he says, and that was the Russian, General Suvorov.

Suvorov was deeply religious and faithfully observed the rites and ceremonies of

the church. But in religious matters he possessed a breadth of view which was rather unusual for his times. Honour and duty were to him firm and unshakeable principles.

Napoleon held that egoism was the prime motive force of human beings, and that one must rule, on the one hand, by threats and intimidation, and, on the other, by appealing to selfish and ambitious instincts. Suvorov looked for higher impulses both in himself and in his soldiers, and above all for a keen love of country, more, for a love of humanity. "I die like a slave for my motherland," he wrote to Khvostov, "and as a cosmopolitan for the world." He repeated this thought several times during his last, fatal illness. He was, of course, referring to the sufferings he and his soldiers had undergone in Italy and Switzerland. He fully realized that, properly speaking, Russia's interests had not demanded these sacrifices, but he considered that they had been made for the sake of a cause in the justice of which he believed, for the sake of the small nationalities, which General Bonaparte had already virtually converted into tributaries of bourgeois France.

IV

The armies of Prussia and Russia and the revolutionary imperial army of France; Frederick, Suvorov and Napoleon—these are the three determining factors in the history of the European wars and of military art in the latter half of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th. Frederick and Napoleon were men of different epochs. When the old king of Prussia died, the future dictator of Europe was still unknown and had not yet begun his fabulous career. Suvorov was a connecting link between the two: at the age of 29 he took part in the rout of Frederick at Kunersdorf, and at the age of 69 he defeated the finest generals of the army which had already wreathed Bonaparte in glory.

Chronologically speaking, Suvorov and his army came between the classical "strategy of attrition" (characteristic of Frederick and the military art of Western Europe in the 18th century) and the new "strategy of demolition" (which marked the development of the

military art in the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries). But, actually, they were not a connecting link between the two doctrines in the form in which they developed in the West. Suvorov represented a specific, national Russian branch of the military art.

At the same time, Suvorov was chronologically a predecessor of Napoleon, as the first great general in Europe to apply on a grand scale the strategy of annihilating the enemy's man-power.

Suvorov's specifically Russian strategy, which harks back to Rumyantsev, and, further, to Peter I, was rooted primarily in the specific character of the Russian army, and reflected its features. Already a state and national army at the time of Peter, the Russian army, by its very nature, differed radically from the mercenary armies of royal Prussia and of the other West-European monarchies, unprincipled armies recruited

from the scum and riff-raff of Europe (as Frederick II characterized his own soldiers).

Suvorov died very soon after the fame of his Italian and Swiss campaigns had spread through the world. He had fallen into disfavor with the tsar, and this absurd and unexpected disgrace had embittered his last days and hastened his end. Tsar Paul observed the obsequies of the great general from afar. He was reluctant to mark the painful event by an official order, and Suvorov's name was never struck off the lists of the Russian army.

Thus, he continued to live with the army even formally, and his name, wreathed in glory, became the standard and symbol of victory of the Russian soldiers, whom, prior to battle, he had roused to enthusiasm with the simple words: "Brothers, eagles. . . doughty champions. . . you are Russians!"



A German plane brought down

THE AGE-OLD STRUGGLE OF THE LITHUANIAN PEOPLE AGAINST GERMANIZATION

by J. MARCINKEVIČIUS

HITLERITE hangmen enslaved the peoples of the weaker states of Europe, and the paw of the beast is raised now in menace to the integrity and independence of our Lithuanian land.

Not for the first time in their history have the Lithuanians come into conflict with the German aggressor, not for the first time are they engaged in a fight to the death with their German enslavers.

Long ago, at the very dawn of our existence as a state, the German "cur-knights"—as Karl Marx aptly designated them—attempted to seize the Lithuanian, Latvian, Esthonian and North-West Russian lands. Like the fascist barbarians of the twentieth century, the German invaders of the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries bore on their blood-stained swords—not culture and statesmanship—but death, poverty and famine. An invasion of German robbers was invariably accompanied by monstrous cruelty, by the destruction of whole tribes and nations who either fell in battle or died out under the conditions of class and national oppression.

The Lithuanian tribes—the Lithuanian-Zhmudini, the Prussi, Latti-Latishi, the Jotvingi and likewise the Western Slavs who went by the name of Wends, inhabited the seaboard of the Baltic, almost all of what is Eastern Germany today, the lands along the Rivers Vistula, Oder and Elbe as they flow south-eastwards.

The Lithuanians are among the most ancient peoples in Europe. They were a settled people from olden times and had a fairly high culture, they were like the ancient Slavs in that they did not found their state for a long time; now the Lithuanian tribes

would unite, now the union would be dissolved and they would fight among themselves. This lack of unity led to disaster at the beginning of the 11th century: the German feudal lords, taking advantage of inter-tribal warfare and setting the avaricious princelings against one another, began the seizure of the Lithuanian lands.

In the Baltic countries of those days there were tilled fields, good hunting-grounds, and fisheries, but very few towns. The Baltic tribes traded with German merchants who had peacefully penetrated even then to their lands. They traded for what was called "Lithuanian gold," the far-famed amber that through the hands of German and Lithuanian traders reached even Rome, where it was valued highly.

After the German merchants came the German Crusaders who attempted the conquest of the rich Baltic states and the enslavement and extermination of the population. The first of these were the missionaries—the Sword-bearers, who attacked the Lithuanian tribes of Prussi inhabiting the lands that extended from the Vistula to Klaipėdė—the Memel of today.

Who were these missionaries—these notorious "cur-knights"?

As is well-known, the Teutonic Order of Knights was founded in 1228 at Jerusalem for the preservation of the Holy Sepulchre. There the Order robbed all that it could and was subsequently sent to the Germanic countries ostensibly to convert the pagans peoples—the Prussi Lithuanians, Latishi, Esthi, and others—to the Christian faith. These knights regarded themselves as the defenders of the Virgin Maria and at one time the head of the order was Bishop Albert of Livonia. Heinrich of Latvia describes in his

"Chronicles of Livonia," one of the representatives of the Order.

"Bernard, a man devoted to the things of this world, after many years of warfare wherein he showed himself full of injustice and guilty of much fire and pillage, became a monk at the injunction of God..."

Knights and crusaders of his type claimed that their despoiling was done in the name of Christianity and civilization and ravaged Prussia a prosperous and, for those times, cultured land.

Actually the German Crusaders and the priesthood looked upon the Baltic countries as the spoils of war and the Prussi as their slaves. The cruelty of the German religious Orders drove whole tribes to hide in the marshes and the forests. The invaders trampled cultivated fields, destroyed the defenseless, peaceable population, and led away into captivity the women and children.

Heinrich of Latvia tells us:

"In those days the Lord God increased the company of the brethren of the knighthood. And they reasoned that as their numbers and their labours did grow, in like manner should their goods and their domains increase, so that those who in warfare and in other ceaseless toil bear the burden of daily care, should receive at the same time due recompense for these labours and good payment... Therefore they began to entreat the Lord Bishop (the Papal legate in Livonia, Latvia and Esthonia) for the whole of Livonia or for the other lands of the neighbouring peoples."

This, then, discloses the real reason for that wholesale destruction of nations which began immediately after the founding of this order.

"In the beginning," wrote Karl Marx, "the Lithuanians beat back these cur-knights fiercely."

In 1237 at Shauli a great battle took place in which the sword-bearers were utterly defeated by the united forces of the Lithuanians, Latishi and Prussi. All the knights were left on the stricken field and even the head of the so called "holy" order did not succeed in escaping.

The Order of the Sword-bearers having been thus weakened, it joined, with a view to accomplishing the final enslavement of

the Prussi, the Order of the Crusaders, founded in the Baltic countries by the papal legate.

Now the Prussi were attacked by the Crusaders, who slew them and impaled their infant children.

Again and again the Prussi rose to resist the robber knights, but ill-armed and divided among themselves as they were, they could not stand out for long. By the end of the 13th century this once prosperous country had been turned into a desert. Many were slain, others had been led away into captivity and many had fled to Lithuania. The remainder underwent a process of Germanization. The last leader of the free Prussi, the man who had fought for fifteen years against the bloodthirsty enslavers, escaped to Lithuania, where he died a short time afterwards.

The crushed and Germanized Prussi took no further part in the events that developed in the Baltic countries; the struggle with the German invaders was carried on by the Lithuanians, Livi-Latishi and Esthonian tribes and the Slavs.

In 1239 the Germans gathered large forces and attacked Lithuania, where they encountered a Lithuanian general, whose armies included many men from the Pskov and Novgorod districts. In the beginning the fight went in the Germans' favour, but soon the Lithuanians, mustering and regrouping their forces, went again to the battle. In this battle at Ruduva, two German generals were killed, 840 horses were captured and 240 men taken prisoner. The Germans retreated. But very soon they made an attempt to occupy the mouth of the River Nemunas. Over two thousand of the Teuton knights attacked the Lithuanian border-strongholds, burnt them and advanced towards the ancient fort of Vielion, situated on the bank of the Nemunas. But the Lithuanian reserves attacked the rear of the enemy forces, surrounded them and in the fierce battles that ensued destroyed them.

The enemy gave them no peace, however, and continued his savage forays. But the Slavs and Lithuanians were growing stronger, unity gave them strength. And now, a

menacing force, rose the princedoms of Pskov, Novgorod and particularly Muscovy.

In 1258 as always without cause or warning, the German knights fell upon the Lithuanian stronghold of Yurbarkas. They advanced upon it rapidly, inexorably, making for the upper and lower reaches of the Neman, burning villages and hastily building fortifications. Runners were dispatched all over the country to call the Lithuanians to arms. And Zhmud was stirred. By the time the local princes' troops arrived, the people had taken the initiative into their own hands and risen with the Lithuanian boyar Dovmant at their head. He divided his men into three groups and hid in the woods. As soon as the Germans approached the town of Serezhus on the banks of the Dubisa and Nemunas, Dovmant and his men rushed out upon them.

The battle was fierce. The sword-bearers were attacked not only with arms but with stones and clubs; many were drowned in the rivers.

The knights turned and fled, and Dovmant started partisan-warfare. The defeated and retiring enemy was hunted down and slain like a wild beast. Castles were ablaze all the way to Klaipeda, and the enemy left his deads on every road and track by which he retreated.

Few of the German warriors, so the facts of history inform us, returned from this campaign.

From that time onward the enemy made it his set purpose to subdue all the Lithuanian tribes. For 150 years this unequal struggle lasted and much blood was shed. The first to be seized by the flame of war was always Zhmud, whose boundaries marched with those of the enemy.

The Germans found a stubborn foe in Keistutis, a Lithuanian prince. This was a man of dauntless courage, in spirit and manners an example of true knight; he was known beyond the borders of his country as one who held fast his word and his sword.

From time to time the German knights made forays across the Lithuanian border, bearing away hostages, killing even Keistutis's kindred in the hope of frightening him and bringing him over to their camp. But he remained true to his own people and to the

Russians who fought side by side with him.

The time came when Zhmud fell into the hands of the Germans. The people revolted against their enslavers, for they knew that the fate of the Prussi awaited them. They sent petitions to the neighbouring princes, summoning them to join the struggle against the Teutons. "It is not souls they are seeking for God," they said, "but our lands, to seize them for themselves."

The Germans were a menace also to the Lithuanian princedom, the ruler of which was Vitovt, and to the Polish kingdom which Vitovt's nephew, Jagailo, ruled. Now these two joined forces, called the neighbouring tribes to their aid and declared war on the Germans. The Teutonic Order was doomed. The decisive battle took place on July 15th, 1410, in the forests and marshes belonging to the Teutonic Order near Grunewald and Tannenberg. This famous battle was fought under the leadership of the Lithuanian Prince Vitovt, son of Keistutis.

By the united efforts of the Lithuanian, Polish and Russian troops the final defeat of the Teutonic robbers was achieved. The Grand Master of the Order and many of its most venerated knights were slain in this battle, which brought a loss to the Order of 55,000 killed and 48,000 taken prisoner.

Then the enemy was forced to ask for peace and restore Zhmud to Lithuania.

In 1467, the Teutonic Order became the vassal of the Polish-Lithuanian state.

Such was the fate of the ancient foe of the Lithuanian people and the Lithuanian state.

The Livonian knights made attempts to renew the struggle, but they were crushed in several fierce encounters with the Russians and soon ceased to exist altogether.

Centuries passed.

The first World War broke out.

The Germans crossed the Lithuanian frontier early in the autumn of 1914. I was going on for fourteen then and was living in Padvilishkino, a little town of 5,000 souls.

On foot, on horseback, on carts, the army of Kaiser Wilhelm flooded the highways and byways of the town and the towns-people hid wherever they could.

There was a little black dog in our yard; we all called him Princik.

"Here, Princik, Princik!" one of the youngsters called from the yard.

All of a sudden one of the Germans jumped off his horse, seized the little dog by the scruff of the neck and flung it into the well. Then he jabbed his bayonet into the child.

Why? Because the child had called a dog "Prince"—and a prince is a noble in Germany.

Once I ran out into the street to look at the German guns. There was a shout of: "Halt!"

I went on running. Three bullets whistled past me...

Why? Because, it was explained to me afterwards, I had not taken off my cap to the German. You had to take off your cap to every one of occupationists, whether you knew him or not and whether you met him ten times a day.

The third day they shot the barber for having given a German quarter-master an unsatisfactory shave.

These were things that happened not only in my town but everywhere.

In the Baltic countries the Germans established a regime of blood. Wherever the German army went, it brought slavery, hunger, and oppression.

The occupied areas were turned into what were actually German provinces, under a German governor-general.

The German interventionists introduced forced labour for the workers and feudal serfdom in the villages. The peasants had to give up the last litre of milk to the occupation authorities. The workers had to toil for almost nothing.

The introduction of a system of direct and indirect taxation completely ruined the peasant farms. Everything was taxed, from real estate to the prime necessities. A tax was levied on all the able-bodied male population between the ages of 15 and 60 was taxed. The land-tax for 1917 was increased tenfold. Other taxes were levied on income, on town-real estate, on special stamps, on bills of exchange, on legal documents, on lawsuits, amusements, sugar, tea, tobacco and so on. There was even a duty on dogs,

20 roubles per dog. Any delay in the payment of the tax entailed a huge fine and even imprisonment. Even non-payment of the dog-tax was punishable by a fine of three thousand Marks or imprisonment.

From the occupied areas the Germans drained the very life-blood. Scores of trains laden with grain, livestock, dairyproduce, wool, flax, hemp, timber, and equipment from the dismantled factories and works, departed daily for Germany from Lithuania, Latvia, Esthonia, Byelorussia, and the Ukraine. With the shamelessness of professional marauders the German interventionists took all they could lay their hands on. The stores of grain provisions and livestock were requisitioned.

Huge detachments of soldiers were sent to carry out requisitioning in the villages; these deprived the peasant of his last little store of grain, his last horse, cow and sheep.

When there was nothing left to take, the Germans drove out the population to collect crow-nests.

For the appearance of the thing, prices were set, but they were ridiculous. A horse that cost between 3,000 and 3,500 roubles would be bought by the Germans for 10 or 15 Tsarist roubles which had no longer any value. In some villages they offered three herrings in exchange for a sheep.

Should any peasant refuse to obey the order regarding the compulsory supply of provisions he was fined 6,000 marks, with an alternative of up to two years' imprisonment.

Terror and relentless cruelty marched with the German army of occupation. One of the first measures that the German command introduced in Lithuania was the order that "for every killed or wounded German soldier the first ten or twenty Russians soldiers (prisoners of war) or townspeople that happened to come to hand would be shot at once."

The youth of Lithuania was deported for forced labour to Germany, where almost all died of starvation; only 30% returned. The children of those who refused to sell themselves to the Germans were taken away from them to Germany.

Incomplete statistics show that in the course of the three years' occupation 570,000 persons

(not counting women and children) were shot or died of starvation. 848 villages and hamlets were burned down by the Germans as a punishment for minor offences, disobedience, etc.

In accordance with the plan devised by Ludendorff and Hindenburg the occupational authorities in Lithuania cut down two-thirds of the timber, conveyed to Germany 118,000 horses, 994,000 cows, 2,800,000 pigs and 12,000,000 fowls.

The national culture of the country was trodden underfoot by the German gendarmes. Though permission was given to open a few of the elementary schools all teaching was done in the German language. A single newspaper was published, but it defended only the interests of the German aggressors.

The Lithuanian people went in deep mourning those days.

Yet in spite of military successes, Kaiser Wilhelm's Germany showed signs of instability, and the occupied countries were the first to sense its downfall.

In September 1917 a conference was called by the commander-in-chief of the German army. The subject under discussion at this conference, which was attended by Hindenburg, Ludendorff, the Chancellor, the Minister for War, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and the representatives from all the most important departments, was the military, political and economic situation in the country. The results were summed up by Hindenburg in his note of September 10th, which gives a clear picture of Germany's economic exhaustion. The conference arrived at the conclusion that the position of Germany's enemies was improving; they had at their disposal the vast man power reserves and the inexhaustible material resources of the United States. Germany could only win the war if she was able to fully guarantee:

1) new contingents for the front; 2) the unintermittent working of the war industries and 3) an unconquerable resolve to achieve a victorious peace.

It was found at this conference that there was a terrifying deficiency of trained reinforcements for every branch of the fighting services. A shortage of various kinds

of military equipment was acutely felt. There it was—the vicious circle: the shortage of soldiers entailed the calling-up of workers of military age who were on munitions, and the necessity for extending the war industries rendered unavoidable the re-calling of skilled workers from the front. Germany and Austria were held as in a vice by the war and the food crisis and their strength was giving out. While England, France and America were developing fresh reserves, the last meagre reserves of Germany and Austria were dwindling.

Towards the close of the war the German soldiers arrived at an understanding of its causes and a correct conclusion as to the interests in which they were being sacrificed. Many were ready to lose their left hand if they could only find release from "this useless murder." They had but one thought: to desert at the first opportunity. They eagerly discussed the English hand-bills headed: "What are you throwing away your lives for?"

More and more frequent now became the appeals of the German authorities in Lithuania: "We are all brothers. Let us live in peace."

In response to this "appeal" the youth of the country began to organize detachments for the struggle against these uninvited "brothers." Three transports were disarmed and two gendarmes killed in Radvilishnis; the commandant's office was destroyed in Yeikuni.

Defeated and humiliated, Wilhelm's warriors made their way home in hungry flocks from the Ukraine; the Lithuanians went out to meet them with axes and pitchforks.

The famous General Hindenburg once lived in Kaunas. The workers burned down the house so that not even the memory of it should remain.

The hatred of the Lithuanians for their traditional foe knew no bounds

In crimes and atrocities the German fascists have far outdone even the "cur-knights" who were their forefathers. They have outdone the Kaiser's army of occupation.

For nine long months the Lithuanian peo-

ple have been groaning under the heel of the Hitlerite oppressor. By an order from Berlin their country has been turned into the German province of "Ostland." Even the most harmless Lithuanian song, like, for instance: "O sorrow, sorrow, sorrow of mine" are regarded by the fascists as a revolutionary song and anyone who is caught singing it is put in prison. In the course of these nine months 4,000 persons have been arrested and sent to prisons and concentration-camps, and about 400 have been shot. No one may venture into the street after six o'clock in the evening under pain of death.

An order was issued to deliver all the skis to the German authorities. In one little town a few young men did not give up theirs, and for this breach of discipline 17 people were shot. The families and relatives of anti-fascist writers and public men are terrorized and ill-treated. The Jewish section of the population is doomed to merciless extinction.

The greater proportion of the books have been taken out of the public libraries. The works of the great Lithuanian poet, Duonellaitis, works that have lived for two centuries and been translated into many European languages, are now reviled; his poem, "The Year" has been withdrawn from the libraries and its circulation is forbidden.

As is well-known, Rintelėn, the German lord-lieutenant in Lithuania, has closed both the Kaunas and Žilintė Universities. The majority of the students were sent on rough manual labour to Germany, while those who have remained drag out a pitiful existence. The latest measure introduced by the Hitlerite hangmen is calculated to destroy forever the entity of the occupied countries as states; a month ago the whole of the male population between the ages of 10 and 45 was deported to the interior of Germany.

To complete the plundering of the country the fascist barbarians have issued false notes—"ost-marks." The pockets of the fascist officers and soldiers are stuffed with these when they go to buy up from the population all that the insolent officials have not yet had time to requisition. Having sustained heavy losses on the Eastern Front and become convinced that the war would have to be carried on under the trying conditions of the severe Russian winter, the fascist occupationists,

with a gun in one hand and Hitler's order in the other, have been scouring the towns and villages of Lithuania, tearing the warm winter clothing from the people's backs. Over three hundred large estates have been divided up among the German officers.

There is famine now in Lithuania, where once there was plenty. The fascist tyrants are taking the last of the grain from the granaries.

The inhabitants of a village in the Rokish district refused to give up their very last grain; they were all arrested and taken away—where, no one knows. Not one has returned.

German fascism has a set purpose: to wipe out the Lithuanian people.

But, true to their fighting traditions, the Lithuanian people are very far from looking on passively at the depredations of their age-long enemy. They are resisting their oppressors and will continue to resist them to the death.

A detachment of partisans under the leadership of a man whose name can only be given here under the initial S., attacked the town of Šauli, destroyed its power-station and blew up a munitions-dump.

Near Yunava another detachment of partisans succeeded in winning back the cattle that had been requisitioned by the German invaders and returned it to its rightful owners.

A third partisan detachment held up the river-vessels not far from Kaunas, killed the fascist guards, and threw the provisions destined for the German army into the river. In revenge for the sufferings inflicted upon women and little children in Polangina one German officer and three soldier-robbers were killed.

In revenge for the burning the Lithuanian towns—Kretinga, Palanga, Survilishkis, Prienė, Meriampolė, Vilkavishkis, Tauragė, Šnikpishkyai, Šauli, Zarasė, Ukmergė and many others, the Lithuanian partisans dog the footsteps of the Hitlerite marauders and relentlessly destroy them.

A typical instance is described by a Lithuanian Markshaitis, who escaped from the clutches of the fascists a short time ago. In

the village of Drutishkay three drunken Hitlerites came up to an old man named Vil-yunas and ordered him to catch some fish for them in the River Dubissi. He obeyed. While he fished the Germans sat on the river-bank and collected the fish. Feeling chilled, the old man came up on the bank to warm himself. One of the Hitlerites pushed him back into the water and drowned him. "Good feed for the fish!"—and these heartless beasts laughed and cleared out. That night all three were killed in a neighbouring village by some unknown partisan. But the aggressor wreaked a cruel revenge on innocent people for the lives of those three soldiers; the village was burned to ashes and its inhabitants shot as they fled from the flames.

After the establishment of Soviet power in Lithuania Count Kossakovsky's farm-labourer, Kruikialis received, like other peasants, 12 hectares of land. When the labourers opened Kossakovsky's palace to make an inventory of his property, they found in one of the secret rooms 40 sticks of different kinds, with curious notches in them. Some had more than a hundred of these notches. No one could understand what they were for until ninety-year-old Kruikialis explained.

It appeared that the old count was in the habit of chastising his serfs with them, and the notches indicated the number of times a particular stick had swished down on the backs of the poor.

The German fascists restored these methods. Kruikialis, the farm-labourer, was deprived of his land. The poor fellow blurted out:

"Now there'll be more sticks than ever. Oh, they'll soon be hard at work now."

For this remark he was hung in Count Kossakovsky's park.

The Lithuanian partisans did not allow

this crime to go unpunished. That night the count's palace blazed up like a haystack.

All over the occupied lands the partisans are fighting.

They call to one another, encourage one another.

"Greetings to our brothers—the Ukrainians, Byelorussians, Moldavians, Lithuanians, Latvians, Esthonians, Karelians, who have fallen for the time being under the yoke of the German fascist blackguards. Brothers! Organize partisan detachments, smash the rear of the enemy troops, destroy the German nazist robbers and wait for our coming—we shall come."

The Lithuanian people answer:

"We hear you! It shall be done. We are waiting."

"No mercy for the German occupationists. Death to the German occupationists!"

And again the unfaltering response of the Lithuanian people:

"Death to the German occupationists!"

For the Lithuanian people remember how the land that bore the great poet Duonelaitis has been germanized, how children were taken from their mothers and carried away into an enemy country. They remember that in the Lithuanian province of Klaipėda those who spoke their native tongue received a blow in the face. They remember how the Gestapo "professors" made a mockery of Lithuanian history. They remember everything; not one thing have they forgotten. And it is a menacing summons—this cry of "Revenge!" Revenge on German nazism, the enslaver of the Lithuanian people. The time has come when the ancient enemy of Lithuanian freedom and Lithuanian culture will be destroyed forever. Death to the enemy!

GORKI DENOUNCES NAZISM

by I. NOVICH

IN THE hour of grim, historical trials, the voice of the great literature of the peoples of the Soviet Union resounds far and wide. It was always been so.

Maxim Gorki is no longer among us—the friend of Lenin and Stalin, the greatest of modern writers, risen from the depths of popular life to the highest pinnacles of culture to proclaim: “Man—that ist the truth.” “Man—that sounds proud.”

Gorki—the writer, artist, publicist and democrat, has long since, by his immortal works and his unremitting activity for the good of mankind, won for himself the boundless authority of a man whose flaming words, whenever menace hung threatening overhead, went forth to the ends of the world, in defense of the freedom, and happiness of the nations and the efflorescence of culture.

Could it then be possible that now, with the Brown plague menacing all humanity, the word of Gorki should not be ringing out in the defense of freedom, culture and democracy.

Gorki lives, and the sound of his voice is mighty; it is the voice of a great son of his people, an ardent patriot, a fearless fighter against nazism.

Gorki, like the majority of the world's greatest writers, was a brilliant publicist, actively political, a fighter against slavery and the humiliation of man.

Never for a moment did Gorki's inspired struggle for the liberation of mankind lose in intensity. Throughout half a century of constructive labour his stormy life was intent on the glorifying of man, his reason and his will.

With a glowing hatred Gorki denounced the exploitation and oppression of nations

based on physical power and enslavement. That is one of the main themes of Gorki's conception of life.

He loved his country and his people with an ardent love and imparted this sacred love to the Soviet people.

He firmly believed that life on earth could be made beautiful without man oppressing man, without social injustice, without all the evil characteristic of the ideology and practice of fascist fanaticism.

A faithful son of his country and his people, Gorki glowed with a sublime feeling of patriotism whenever he spoke of the USSR.

He was proud of the new man of the Soviet Union who had built a new state by dint of tense labour and a bitter struggle with numerous foes.

At the outset of his wonderful life-path, as far back as the nineties of last century, Gorki portrayed in his writings such rebels as Danko, his legendary hero.

Danko gives up even his heart for the good of mankind, a heart that flames like a torch illumining a path leading men out of the jungle of an unjust and sordid life. With enthusiasm he wrote of men who serve truth, justice, beauty. Illumining life with their own radiant light, Gorki said, they cause even the blind to see. Long live man, the master of his wishes! The whole world is in his heart; all the pain of the world, all its suffering, in his soul. The evil and sordidness of life, falsehood and cruelty are his enemies... Spare not thyself—that is the proudest, the most glorious wisdom on earth... There are only two forms of life—decay or burning... To him who loves beauty it is clear in which of the two grandeur lies.

“Man”, Gorki teaches us, “instinctively as-

pires to a higher good—higher and higher! Make this endeavour a reasoned one—he says—teach men to realize that it is only in a conscious aspiration to good that true happiness lies! Honour to the courageous, to the strong in spirit,” Gorki exclaims.

He saw, how miraculously men were transformed after the October of 1917, and he rejoiced at the change, as a citizen of his wonderful country.

More than once when speaking of this joy he would say: “I speak... as a man for whom the happiness and joy of his people are his own happiness and his own joy” (M. Gorki, *Journalistic Articles*, P. 147).

He used to say that it was only the focussed energy of the many-millions masses of workers and peasants, organized by the genius of Lenin and Stalin that could have created such an advanced and mighty country.

It was with pride that Gorki compared the worker of the Soviet Union to the Atlantis of fable,—the force which had created a free state. “It is more like a fairy tale, Gorki said, but it is nevertheless a fact. Bashkiria and Uzbekistan, the remote Siberian taiga and Karelia—Moldavia and Chuvashia, all say in unison—we have revived to a new life—at last we have risen to our feet” (The same. P. 231).

Gorki often used to speak of his joy to live in a country “irradiated by the genius of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin—in a country where the iron will of Joseph Stalin was working indefatigably and miraculously.”

Another occasion when Gorki wrote with pride about the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, was in 1935, in a message to the International Congress of writers in Defense of Culture from Fascist Barbarity:

“There is a land where the will and understanding of the worker and peasant masses are impelled and educated by labour that is necessary for the state; labour that is equally useful for every working individual, and where the entire mass of labour energy is drawn into the multiform work of creating new conditions of life, that is, of a new socialist culture.

“Where the cultural activity of the individual is so highly appreciated by the entire mass of the working population as it has

never yet been appreciated anywhere else, and where this appreciation continuously enhances the development of the personality and the heroism of labour.

“Where women—one half of the country’s population enjoy equal rights with the men, and work heroically side by side with man in all fields where may be applied an intelligent energy which transforms the world; and where female talent, daring, and labour-enthusiasm are growing apace with fantastic speed.

“Where a number of different tribes, numerically small, who before had no written language now possess one, and having gained the right of a free development, are showing the world the primitive freshness of their outlook on life, their talent in labour, and their poetry, lovely in its simplicity.”

This is what Gorki wrote, proudly and enthusiastically in the year before his death. There is in these remarkable words a fathomless truth, as expressed by the illustrious writer, who gave up his life for his people and country. To love our country, to defend it from its enemies—that is Gorki’s bequest to us all.

What Gorki meant by defending our country from the invaders was first and foremost to defend it from the two-legged brutes forming Hitler’s frenzied gang.

Gorki never wearied of branding and denouncing nazism. He knew that the time determined by the course of history was drawing near for the crucial collision between the progressive portions of mankind, and the hideous nazism. This hour has now arrived.

The October of 1917 brought for Russia and all the peoples inhabiting it, not only liberty within the country, but also real independence abroad, before the face of the whole world. Gorki was always saying that this was a truth which nazism never would take into account in its policy of base deception of the German people, supported by brazen robbery of the possessions of others.

Gorki, who was always quick to sensing the enemies of democracy, culture and progress, carried on his turbulent, ideological struggle with nazism from the very outset of the Hitlerites’ advent to power in Germany.

Every article he wrote was a denunciation of hitlerism. He addressed letters to promi-

ent men in science and art in the countries of Western Europe, America, and the East, and sent messages to the members of international congresses of writers and public characters.

A man like Gorki who had devoted his whole life to the freedom and happiness of humanity, could not but rise in revolt against the Hitlerites, those abject pigmies, frenzied by the conflagration which they had themselves kindled and the human blood they had shed.

Full of wrath and hatred, Gorki denounced the insane nazist theory of the domination of the German nation over the world.

The fascism of Italy, Gorki wrote, dreams of Rome's power over the world. Hitler preaches that nazism will glorify Germany over all mankind. Words fail to express how wretchedly mean it all is, how senseless and disgusting.

How ludicrous seem all these aspirations of Italian and German nazism after the defeats suffered on the fields of Soviet Russia! Gorki was well aware that the so-called "theory" advocated by the nazist maniacs was a prerequisite for war, which was unlike any other; and which would surpass in horror any war hitherto known to history.

For its ideology German nazism bases itself in considerable measure on the morbid philosophy of Friedrich Nietzsche. Such an attitude has its grounds. The fascists should indeed go to Nietzsche for some of their conceptions. This is what their master-philosopher wrote in reference to the notorious and time-honoured idea of the German world domination.

"The German spirit is a kind of indigestion—it can not absorb ideas." "The few instances of high culture that I came across in Germany were all of French origin." "Wherever Germany penetrates, she spoils culture." In speaking of himself Nietzsche said: "The first attack was aimed at German culture (this was in 1873) which I even then looked down upon with boundless contempt." "The German spirit is impure air. It is with difficulty that I can breathe in this uncleanness that has become an instinct..." "For me, the Germans are impossible. When I try to figure to myself the kind of man who

would go contrary to all my instincts, there always emerges a German."

We cannot agree with such an appraisal of the German people, for we remember that just as the Russian people have given to the world Pushkin, Lermontov, Gogol, Tourgenyev, Tolstoi, and Gorki; the English—Shakespeare, Byron, Dickens; the French—Balzac, Hugo, Flaubert, France, Rolland and the Spanish—Servantes—so the German people have contributed to world culture their Schiller, Goethe, Heine, Beethoven. We have cited Nietzsche only to give illustrative proof of the card-sharpping manoeuvres in vogue among the nazist advocates of the pseudo-theory of German world-domination—a theory that called forth from Gorki, who was an ardent humanist and friend of mankind,—a blaze of anger and ruthless contempt.

Gorki denounced fascism as an organization of men morally insane, people who were the dregs of society, hysterical individuals with the morbid mentality of the degenerate. Only some seven or eight years ago Gorki's words were confirmed in a way that leaves no room for doubt. To this have now been added facts of unparalleled enslavement and plunder of entire nations and countries practiced within recent years by the nazist gangsters.

A long time has elapsed since Gorki wrote his articles.

...But his words have preserved intact their force of a grim indictment!

He^e denounced with indignation the inhuman nazist barbarity on whose black blood-stained banner was inscribed the doctrine of mass extermination of men—its wolfish law of life.

The strife for life—Gorki said—could never be interpreted by the nazist as anything other than the struggle of man against man. The struggle of the collective will of men and their collective understanding in the process of surmounting the forces of nature with the aim of emancipating human beings from conditions of laborious slave-toil—this lofty struggle, filling the entire history of human culture, is organically incomprehensible to the fascist barbarians. This is what Gorki wrote on the subject:

The fundamental principle underlying the

life of a villain—his creed, his mentality is to be expressed in the following simple words:

"I am hungry." Everybody else wants to eat, too, but villainy cannot take this fact into account; a villain is a creature narrowly and perversely limited to his own individual wishes. To him the world is a place where people eat, and he wants to eat more and to eat better than other people do. It is to this bestial goal that his entire will is directed, his whole mind, everything that he is pleased to call his spiritual world; and it is to the fight against this conception of the nazist robbers that Gorki called all the workers, all progressive humanity.

The complacent humanism of the Philistine, in Gorki's opinion, calls to compassion and to conciliation with the humiliating division of men into higher and lower races of men and tribes—into white aristocrats and "coloured" slaves. It was not to compassion and not to conciliation that Gorki called, but to war against the oppressor. He called to bitter hatred against the nazist enemies of mankind, against brazen-faced Hitlerite ruffianism. To the annihilation of nazist.

"It can never, of course, be a question,—Gorki wrote in one of his as yet unpublished essays—of persuading a beast to behave mercifully towards a man who has fallen into his clutches. It is a question of tearing the beast's fangs out of the man's shoulder together with the head of the beast."

Nazism, in practicing terror, breeds hatred of terror in the masses, and this hatred organizes the masses to indisputably just vengeance on the enemy. The enemy is doomed and must perish.

Nazism, the latest and ignominious product of decay and decomposition—is according to Gorki, a cancerous growth that has to be extirpated without a vestige remaining.

The German and Italian fascist ringleaders have outrageously deceived their people to whom Hitler and Mussolini promised prosperity and have brought instead indescribable hardships and horrors.

German fascism has chosen the swastika as the official emblem of its abortive Third Empire—a symbol met with in the Middle Ages on tombstones and the vestments of priests. In the Christian ideology the swastika symbolizes the divine grace. What horrible

"grace" of brutes and cannibals has been brought by nazism is now well known to the people of Germany and Italy where nazists are dominating, and also to the peoples of Poland, France, Czechoslovakia, Serbia, Norway, Belgium, Denmark, Holland, Greece—throughout all the countries captured in the present war by the demented nazist clique.

Instead of grace the nazists have brought, and are bringing with them unheard-of poverty, famine, savagery—sanguinary torture and hardships innumerable, plunder and brutality. In nazist everything is falsehood and deception, beginning with the very state emblem of nazist Germany.

In the country where, once upon a time sounded the noble dramas of Schiller, the advocate of humanism,—and the wise verses of Goethe's Faust and the songs of Heine irreconcilable with anything resembling bigotry—there can now only be heard coarse nazist soldier doggerel of the Hitlerite tribe forming into ranks and getting ready for racial slaughter.

"We are not, nor do we want to be, the Country of Goethe"—say the nazists.

Nazist Germany, groaning under oppression and bleeding white, is no longer the country of Goethe and Schiller. Don Carlos is still performed on the stage of the Berlin theatre. But where are the words of the high-minded Marquis Posa: "Oh Emperor—give us freedom of thought!—Schiller's words inseparably bound up with his name in the memory of all progressive mankind. You will not find them in the new Don Carlos. They have been thrown into the rubbish heap—like litter—like a dirty clout.

But they will return, they will return once more to their tortured country, will Goethe, and Schiller and Heine!

The world has forgotten nothing. Among other things, it has not forgotten the barbarous bonfires kindled on May 10th, 1933 on the Berlin Opera Square, where the nazists burnt the books of the advanced thinkers, scholars, poets and writers of the world.

The square before the University on which are burnt books universally recognized and famous all over the world—that is the New word of Hitler, that disciple of Shakespeare's wild and deformed Caliban who said: In sleep thou may'st have first seized his

books; or with a log batter his skull, or paunch him with a stake, or cut his wezand with thy knife. Remember first to possess his books; Burn but his books.

Shakespeare's Caliban is not a real being, but a creature evolved by the writer's fancy. The artists of the present and the future will not have to resort to their imagination in order to create a Caliban; writers will not need to think long before evolving an artistic presentment of barbarians and savages. The poetical imagination will not have to search the depths of the past ages—the artist will have the real thing before him, living nature,—Caliban—Hitler.

According to Gorki it is labour, understanding and will-power that have created everything on which man has the right to pride himself.

Man the creator is sung by Gorki. The urge to labour is the noblest trait in man. Gorki's entire work is permeated with the lofty poetry of labour.

My mind—Gorki wrote in presenting a sublime picture of labour—was irradiated with a wish to pass my whole life in this almost mad rapture of doing—that is of labour which performs miracles.

"Throughout the whole course of my life—Gorki said—I have seen as real heroes only the men who loved labour and knew how to work; men who had made it their object to liberate all the forces of human nature for constructive labour, for the beautifying of our earth, and for organizing on the earth such forms of life as are worthy of man."

How then could Gorki have refrained from raising his mighty voice in protest and in calling to the fight against the nazist bar-

barians who enslave man and his labour,—who kill creative endeavour?

The spearhead of every thought and every manifestation of feeling, of every page and line of Gorki's writings is pointed with all its intensity at the brutal, barbarous, man-hating conceptions of nazism and its murderous practices.

Irreconcilably hostile—are the Gorki struggle for freedom and the efflorescence of the human personality on the one hand, and the low nazist method of dividing men into lower, slave-races, and the German, master-race.

The conception of the equality of all races and nations for which Gorki fought with the weapons of his art, is a denunciation of the false and fanatical propaganda of the racial theory; irreconcilable are Gorki's boundless love for all humanity and the insolent nazist contempt of the masses; Gorki's devoted struggle for a new flowering of culture and art and the nazist barbarity, bigotry and unbridled doctrine of ignorance, negation of culture, mysticism...

Every word of Gorki's immortal writings brands, denounces and exposes nazism, contributing to the unity of our mighty people with all other progressive humanity, risen to the sacred fight against its mortal enemy—nazism.

"... If a war should break out, I too, shall go as a rank-and-file soldier... because the great and just cause of the Soviet Union is my legitimate cause, my duty"—wrote Gorki.

Noble words of a true patriot! To us they sound as the bequest of a teacher and friend—the pass-word of a warrior tried in the fire,—as a call to arms!



On the road where Russians won glory in the olden days. After driving the Germans out of Tarutino, Red Army men visit the monument to the victory of Kutuzov over Napoleon in 1812

PATRIOTISM—THE GREAT TRADITION OF RUSSIAN LITERATURE

by S. SERGEYEV-TSENSKY

BEGINNING with the creator of "The Lay of Igor's Troop," whose name has remained unknown to us, but who was a man of great talent, all the major Russian writers have been distinguished by their patriotism. Whether it was an active patriotism which took the form of direct participation in the battles for Russia, as in the case of Denis Davidov, the poet and partisan, or whether it was expressed in the fact that the particular representative of Russian literature was full of anxiety for his country and in its hour of stress strove to do his bit by vivid writing, all the same in the words of Pushkin "The poet's words are his deeds."

Of immense significance for Russian literature was the war of 1812 when the country, which had been built up in the course of centuries, was in danger of losing her independence and she exerted all her forces to defend it. The work of the greatest Russian writers during the decades following that war was permeated with the spirit of patriotism. And what illustrious names were among them! Pushkin, Griboyedov, Koltsov, Lermontov, Gogol, Nekrasov, Turgenev, Belinsky, Herten and the later writers: Leo Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Saltykov-Shchedrin, Ostrovsky, Leskov, Pisemsky.

Pushkin, that great poet of genius, was a great patriot. He was positively enamoured of Russia, although he possessed to perfection the capacity of assuming the guise of diverse representatives of foreign countries, beginning with Don Juan and ending with the characters in his "A Feast during the Plague."

Only a man as enamoured of Russian history as Pushkin was could produce "Boris Godunov," "Poltava," "The Bronze Horseman," "The Captain's Daughter," "The Negro

of Peter the Great;" only a man enamoured of Russian nature and Russian life could write "Eugene Onegin;" only a man enamoured of Russian folklore could produce "Ruslan and Lyudmila," "The Tale of Tsar Saltan," "The Tale of the Workman Balda," "The Tale of the Fisherman and the Little Fish," and similar works. And even though at time Pushkin, oppressed by the Tsar's tutelage, grumbled and gave vent to sentiments such as expressed in the phrase "It was the devil's trick that with my soul and talent I was born in Russia," it is very difficult to imagine Pushkin outside of Russia. And everything he wrote about Russia bears the imprint of things written as if in the period on one's first love, when one's feelings are profound, integral, and very vivid.

Lermontov, that other titan of Russian poetry, tried in his poem, "Homeland" to define the extent to which he was a patriot, what it was exactly that he loved about Russia. It seemed to him that he loved ("I don't know why myself") "the chilly silence of her steppes, the waving of her boundless woods, the overflowing of her streams." At the same time it seemed to him that "neither glory bought with blood, nor confidence serene and proud, nor the traditions of a distant past, can in the soul stir happy dreams." Yet it was he who wrote the amazingly expressive "Lay of the Merchant Kalashnikov," it was he who left us his "Borodino," it was he who wrote of Napoleon in the poem "The Last Homewarming," and "The Two Giants," it was he who said:

"Moscow, oh Moscow, t'is as a son and a
Russian
That ardently and tenderly I love you."

Gogol, the third great Russian poet, who wrote poems in prose, spent in foreign coun-

tries fourteen years of his short life. Yet it was while living abroad that he wrote his "Dead Souls," one of the most Russian of Russian books, containing the lyrical passage permeated with love for the country, which, under the title "Rus" has been included in every anthology of Russian literature.

Laughing as he did with the bitter "laughter through tears" at the things which he exhibited "for the whole people to see," Gogol was more than profoundly convinced that he was thereby serving Russia. Delineating base characters as only he alone in all our literature could depict them, he was doing his truly patriotic duty. He said to himself: "We must show up the scoundrel" and he did. The Chichikovs and Nozdrevs, the Khlestakovs and Sobakevichs became the laughing-stock of the whole people.

No less than Pushkin enamoured of folklore, Gogol never tired collecting the songs and "dumas" of his native Ukraine, and "the traditions of a distant past" served as the basis for his "Taras Bulba."

A poet who ranks with the greatest in world literature, he collected material for a geography of Russia which he seriously intended to write. His notebooks abound in pages containing the popular names of field grasses and flowers in central and southern Russia. All his life he strove to be of the greatest possible use to his country. It may be boldly affirmed that Gogol regarded his literary activity as a direct service to the people.

And it was certainly of Gogol that Nekrasov thought when he wrote of himself:

"You must reconcile yourselves to my muse—it's the only tune I know well; he who feels neither sorrow nor wrath cannot possibly love his country!"

Lermontov cherished the idea of writing a novel dealing with the war of 1812, but he was killed when still very young. We do not know what course his life would have taken had he not been killed, and what his genius might have contributed to Russian literature. In any event his idea of that novel was picked up by the most worthy of Russian writers of a later generation.

With the archives of the Tolstoy and Volkonskys at his disposal, making use of the

numerous memoirs of Russian and foreign authors, and relying on his own incomparable power of observation, his military experience in the Caucasus and at Sevastopol, his gift of an uncommonly subtle psychologist, and his knowledge of the life of the people and of high society, Tolstoy created "War and Peace," that work which ranks with the greatest in world literature.

One important circumstance must be noted here. Tolstoy wrote "War and Peace" epic in the 1860's, when in all the magazines the literature of condemnation reigned supreme, owing to the plight of the peasants after the Reform of 1861. Tolstoy in his huge work defied the reigning elements—he did not condemn, but sought to bring out every positive trait he could discern in the Russian.

We know that in the second and, still more, in the third part of "Dead Souls" Gogol intended to portray positive types, but he failed. His Murasovs and Kostanjoglos were not endowed with any live unforgettable features; they did not turn out to be vivid characters like Petukh or General Vertishchev, to say nothing of Manilov or Plyushkin. Tolstoy proved to be the successor not only of Lermontov but of Gogol too, he succeeded where Gogol stumbled—he put life into the "dead souls" and made them scintillate with all the colours of living. Nearly all the heroes of "War and Peace" are positive characters. The exceptions are quite few—three or four in all. Tolstoy had nothing of the satirist in him, and it seems that it never even occurred to him to "show up the scoundrel," a task in which Gogol and, later, Shchedrin were so eminently successful.

He himself admires, and he makes us admire, Natasha and Sonia, Andrey Bolkonsky and the old Prince Bolkonsky, Pierre Bezukhov and Captain Timokhin, Platon Karatajev and Nikolai Rostov, Vaska Denisov and practically all the other characters in the novel—and all because he endowed them with the spirit of patriotism and consistently led them to the pinnacles of patriotic fervour.

Tolstoy died in 1910 when Gorki was 42 years of age. Wide as was the circle of Tolstoy's observations, it did not include the workers and the merchants, the clergy and the provincial intelligentsia. Tolstoy, in a manner of speaking, left it to the playwright:

Ostrovsky to depict the merchants, to Leskov to deal with the clergy, and to Chekhov to portray the intelligentsia. Russia's proletariat was still waiting for the writer who would portray it, and that writer appeared in the person of Maxim Gorki, and everything in him was surprising and new.

The young Gorki overwhelmed the Russian reader by his passionate love, not for what existed in life, but for what did not exist but had to appear in order that the land of Russia might flower exuberantly.

At a time when Chekhov, through one of his characters, remarked in a melancholy vein: "In some two or three hundred years, when life will be better," Gorki saw the approaching revolution which was destined to change the stagnant life of tsarist Russia and awaken all the forces of the people—that was the source of his enthusiasm, that was what distinguished him from all other writers. He was a great patriot of Russia. Like Tolstoy, he believed in the integrity of the Russian, in his capacity for performing deeds of valour and defending his country.

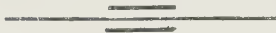
He was convinced that the Russian was endowed with gifts which the tsarist regime prevented from developing.

It must also be noted that Gorki loved Russian literature in an entirely new way of his own. That too was a manifestation of his patriotism. He was proud of Russian literature as the highest, most striking and obvious expression of the national genius.

Gorki represented an extremely happy combination of poet and citizen.

We Soviet writers have obtained the right to be citizens—true and genuine citizens of our country; and the terrible war of extermination imposed upon us by the mad Hitler, fuehrer of Nazi Germany, is proving to us every day that without our country we are nil.

Rushing along its old orbit around the sun is our planet, red with the blood and flames of war. Our duty, the duty of writers in the Soviet Union, is to strive to be of the greatest use to our country in these days of severe trials.



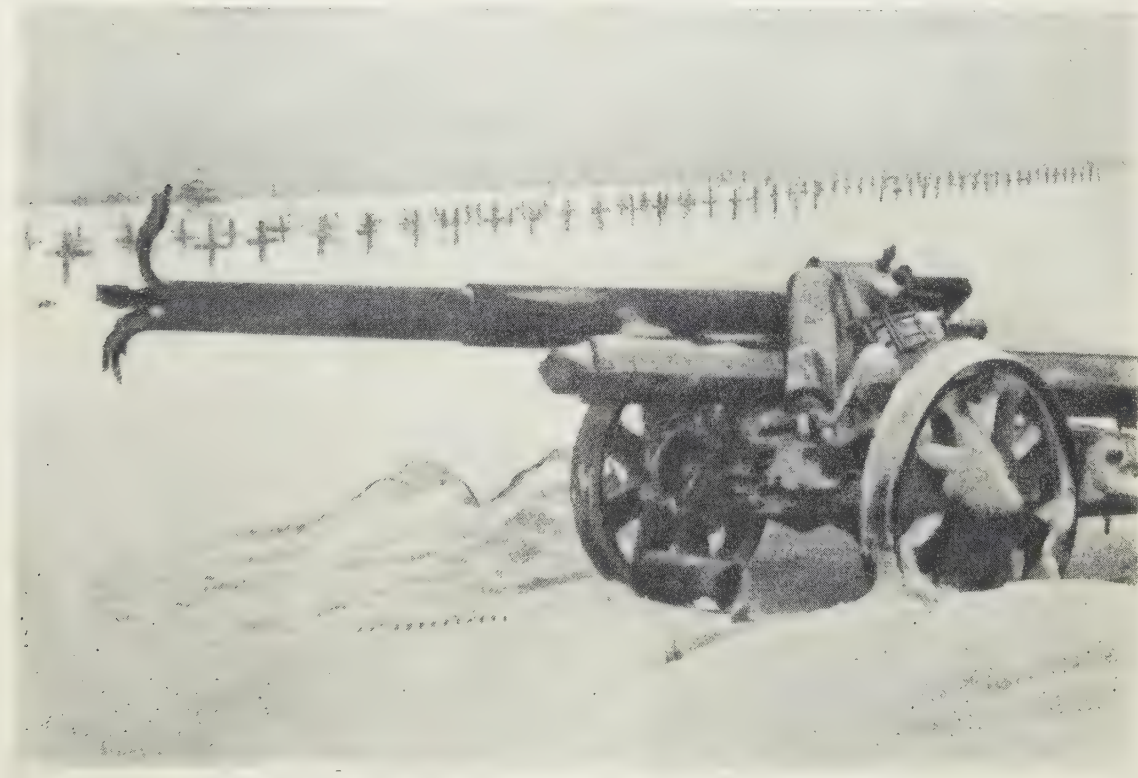
THE MUSES ON THE MARCH

by ILYA EHRENBURG

The ancients said that the muses were mute on the field of battle. No, the muses were not mute, they are militant, and short, concise words of wrath or self-sacrifice escape from their parched lips. There is no time for psychological romances during a campaign. There is no time for historical pictures in the camp. Time will come for "War and Peace." Now we have only war, war without quote, no romance, but an epoch.

The modern war includes all the elements of mechanical civilization. Every year, every

month, involves ameliorations or inventions. The words "new weapon" are imbibed with hope. However, in this war of motors there is something of the ancient, there is something permanent: not only the hand-to-hand fight, but everything emanating from man as well, such as: courage, fear, overcoming of fear, friendship, offense, hatred, abnegation. The white shadow of the victory hovers above the Red Army which is chasing the enemy from Moscow. Tanks have taken the place of ancient chariots, but the



All that remains of the German assault on the approaches to Moscow

banner has remained a banner and the bugler—a bugler.

We know how much our people loves writers. Sometimes naively "Describe me also," sometimes sagely "Do not lag behind life. Yours is the foremost place." This love was our support in tedious moments. Love cannot be bought, love should be returned. A new era began on June 22nd. Our fidelity was tested with hot iron. Our love was verified with bombs and bullets.

The architect must know how to erect not only a Saint Sophy temple, he must know how to build a mud-hut as well.

A writer must know how to write not only for the centuries. He should know how to write also for the one short second, if the fate of his people is to be decided in this second.

The muse of history measures the fields around Tula and Rostov. The muse of tragedy flies around the deserts of Europe. The muse of poetry leads the troops to the field of battle. During war time the peoples are in need of all of us—both banner bearer and bugler.

First of all we must mention the names of those writers who share the trials of battle life with the warriors, of those who entered anonymous epopees into the newspapers of the front, of those who were marked by fearlessness in the epopee of the war. We, writers, are proud of our comrades of the battle field.

Our friends writers, both at the front and in the rear, you have left books unfinished, you have left in the old note-books scrawls so dear to us. Everything will come in due time. The warriors who took back Naro-Fominsk and Belyov from the enemy, were fighting also for our future books, for those of our friends, as well as for ours.

Now they are expecting live voices, burning words, brotherly love. There is nothing more terrible than pseudo-wisdom, than silence for the sake of the future, than quietude for the sake of history. The future will be full of contempt for those who were silent. History will turn away from the quiescent. Let us be militant! Let us reside in dust and blood, since these are the garments of the peoples on the march. Higher the banner! Sound the trumpet, bugler!



They had intended to get a good warming-up in Moscow

MY SEVENTH SYMPHONY

by D. SHOSTAKOVICH

MY seventh symphony I began in besieged Leningrad. Every day of the heroic defense of this great town was a new link in the sublime symphony of the struggle carried on by our people. I hearkened to the life and saw the strain of the Russian people and tried to inculcate the pictures of their heroic deeds in my music.

The first part, a symphonic allegro, was inspired by the month of August in Leningrad. The war burst into our peaceful life. Its pestilent merciless breath enveloped us. Our people—workers, thinkers, creators—became warriors. Ordinary men and women turned heroes, they were staunch, brave, valliant.

The first part of the symphony has something tragic, it includes a requiem. It is full of grief for the dear deceased, for those who died the death of heroes on the field of battle.

However, we are unconquerable in our great national war, because ours is a righteous cause. We know that Hitler will be conquered and that our enemy, however innumerable, will find his grave in Russian earth. Therefore, the general spirit of the first part is bright, cheerful and life asserting.

The second and third parts—a scherzo and an adagio—are intermediary between the two principal parts—the first and fourth ones.

I composed the scherzo and the adagio at the time when the dark clouds gathered over our country, when the Red Army retreating but fighting with a stunning fearlessness exhausted the forces of the enemy annihilating his man-power and destroying his technique.



Dmitri Shostakovich

Every step of the retreating Red Army evoked a smarting and painful echo in our hearts. But the Soviet people knew that they were invincible; that the great liberating idea of the national war would triumph. The sons and daughters of our country shall endure any trials and shall not suffer their fatherland to be insulted by Hitler.

The scherzo and adagio express the confidence in the near triumph of freedom, justice and happiness. The fourth part is to a certain extent a continuation of the first. It

is the finale of the symphony; it is composed also in the form of a symphonic allegro. And if the first part may be conditionally given the name of "war," the fourth part ought to be called "victory."

The fourth part begins with the idea of the struggle of life and death. The joint struggle of light and darkness grows into a radiant

exultation. We are carrying on the offensive. The fatherland is victorious.

My dream is to hear in the near future the production of this symphony in Leningrad, in my own native city which inspired me to create it. I dedicate my dearest work of art to the heroic defenders of Leningrad, to the Red Army and to our victory.

SYMPHONY OF STRUGGLE AND VICTORY

by D. RABINOVICH

THE Seventh Symphony of Shostakovich is the natural continuation of what the composer had said in his former best works. Depth of ideological background, nobility and purity of emotions, unusual physical beauty of music, perfection of form—such were the features that captivated us in the Fifth and Sixth Symphonies, in the quintette and they allure us also in his new opus. At the same time wholly new traits have made their appearance in the Seventh Symphony. The war is leaving its imprint upon each one of us. What he has experienced—the heroism and suffering of Soviet people—has found an echo in the heart of the composer.

Fifteen years ago, the time he wrote his First Symphony, it became clear to everyone that here was not simply a great master but a virtuoso who held the keys to all the mysteries of his art, to whom the process of embodiment—the most complicated problem awaiting solution at the hands of the artist—was merely a subordinate affair.

And yet how long Shostakovich remained a youth! He was on a quest. This is characteristic not only of youth. Titian at the age of ninety-nine painted his chef-d'œuvre, *St. Sebastian*. He was also on a quest. And so did Verdi, who, at an advanced old age, opened up a new page in the long list of his productions by composing *Othello* and *Falstaff*. But youth possesses ideals, while maturity of years finds ways and means of bringing them to fruition. After the Fifth Symphony with its tragedy of the germination of personality there has appeared the Seventh in which this personality already reveals every face of itself. Man becomes a citizen.

We have sensed manhood both in the drama of the first part of the Fifth Sym-

phony and in the triumph of its finale and in the volitional theme of the introduction to the Sixth Symphony and in the crystal-clear, classically harmonious delineations of the quintette. But in the Seventh Symphony it appeared before us as quite a different thing—free from *résignation*, not burdened with contrariety of emotions, requiring the concentration of expression of a Beethoven.

The "biography" of the symphony explains much that is in it. The project of this piece of music originated during one of the tense periods of the war, the time when the enemy was approaching the gates of Leningrad. Three parts of the symphony were written in the beleaguered fortress. The composer was of one mind with those who were fighting on the Pulkovo heights, who were erecting barricades at the Narva Gates, who under artillery fire were forging weapons for the city of Lenin. He shared their will to achieve victory and led the same life as they. They were the fount from which Shostakovich drew the moral strength which helped him to create this piece of art which is of overwhelming beauty and humanity.

The Seventh Symphony is the first program piece by Shostakovich. It relates of the emotions of our times, narrates with the passion of a patriotic appeal, with the wrathful vehemence of an anti-fascist arraignment. Two worlds are in opposition in the Seventh Symphony. The first is replete with thought and emotion, great passions and noble aspirations. We behold it in the first theme, open and sturdy as are the faces of millions of Soviet people whom Sunday, June 22nd found basking in the joys of a peaceful life. It is there, at the end of the exposition, a serenely happy melody, refulgent like the

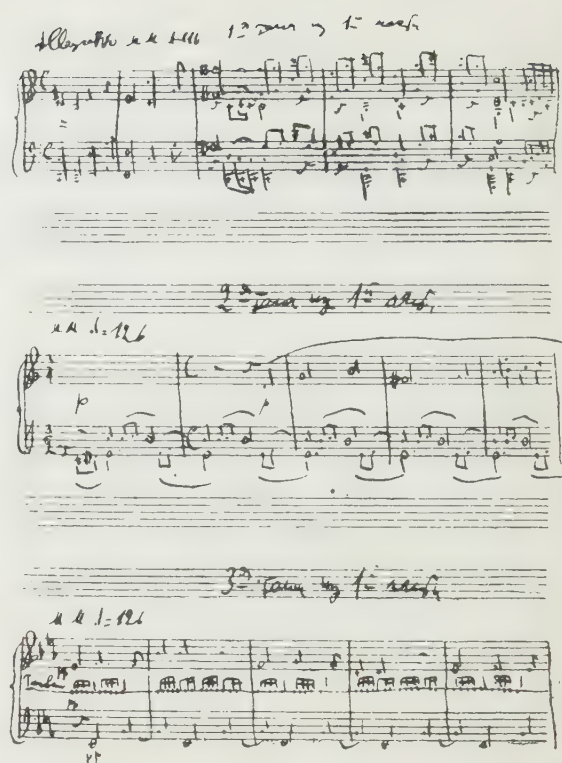
boundless sky in June. And it is there in the reprise of the first part, in which the same music is transformed into a mournful, majestic requiem: the people are bewailing those that have fallen in freedom's cause.

And then there is the second world—brutal, senseless and inexorable. With the incessant rolling of drums in the background, the sounds of a march-like, malevolent theme are heard. It is repeated twelve times, without developing but only increasing in volume of sound. At first it is performed by a *pizzicato*, to be subsequently picked up by flutes, bassoons and cornets. It storms through the howling wrath of the brass. It draws nigh, marches on... And yet there is a certain static quality to it. Music, cruel like a powerful mechanism, stirs one's feeling of hatred, cries out for revenge. It is devoid of all naturalistic imitation of "war sounds." It is a psychological portrait of the enemy—merciless and accusatory.

In the first part of the symphony the composer makes use of the simplest method of producing dramatic contrast, but he endows it with the form of a great social generalization. The march-like episode of the first part takes the place of the usual elaboration of a sonata allegro. How ominous it sounds after the happy scenes of peaceful life drawn by the composer in the exposition! What force of tragic expressiveness the requiem reprise that follows it acquires! Grief, the great grief of an entire people, has been put to sound in the music. And in this grief are the courage and strength of the spirit which no ordeals, however severe, can break.

At the end of the first part the first theme, radiant with sunshine, appears once more. But how metamorphosed it is! Dilatory concentration, the special significance of the emotions, now appear in it. People have become more grown-up, more strict, more self-exacting.

The second part, a scherzo, has been called *Reminiscence* by the composer himself. The mind of the artist wanders back to the happiness of recent days. Shostakovich departs from the usual treatment of a scherzo. It would be futile to look here for witticisms or comical parts, and still more so for sarcasm or the grotesque. The second part of the symphony has borrowed from the scher-

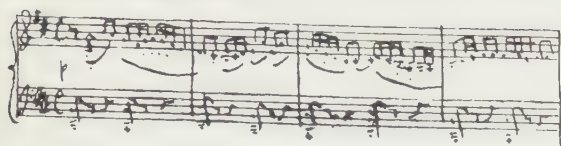


1st, 2nd and 3rd themes from 1st movement

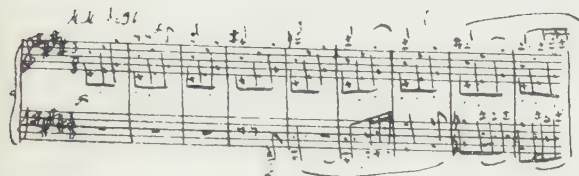
zo only its natural vivacity, but it is a vivacity of lyrical emotion and not one flowing from the pen of a sceptical-minded author. The music of the scherzo is of striking gentleness; it is suffused with unusual warmth of sound. If one were to give a concise definition of the emotions with which this remarkable music abounds, one would say that it expressed the joy of life.

The third part is a largo. Grand in its conception, astounding in its depth and force of expression, it involuntarily begets in the mind of the audience the idea of comparing it with Beethoven's brilliant largo in his sonata in op. 106. No introspection here, as in the slow part of the Fifth Symphony, and no self-dissolution in the cosmos, as in the elaboration of the largo of the Sixth. The music of the third part of the Seventh Symphony bears the lofty exaltation of reflection. It is a rendition of the thoughts of a great contemporary artist who has imbibed the present-day thoughts and the feelings of many of his fellow-beings. Together with us the composer reflects on

Moderato poco Allegretto 4/4 1:36 *Humero 2^a recit.*



Capriccio 2^a recit.

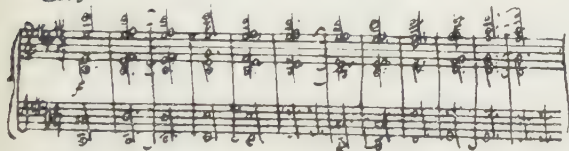


Opening and middle of 2nd movement

the "fateful minutes of this world;" he looks upon life with the same eyes as we, he listens to what is going on in the world and the same chords are struck in his heart as in ours, but he feels everything more deeply and more intensely. His reflections are addressed to us. Hence the oratorical loftiness of the music, hence the activity, the effectiveness, the manliness of this philosophically elaborated largo so penetrated by lyricism.

Humero 3^a recit.

Allegro 4/4 1:12



Opening of 3rd movement

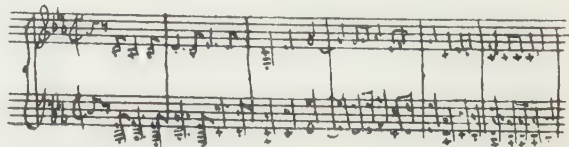
And what a surpassing ecstasy of life it holds! It was not fortuitous that it came to form part of Shostakovich's symphony written in days of war. For it was precisely the war that compelled people to feel with particular keenness life, its joy, its poetry and beauty, all that into which fascism has thrust its bloodstained sword. And the artist has given a rendition of the beauty, joy and poetry of life perfected by the beauty of music, which elevates the mind and ennobles emo-

tion, which once more compels one to recall for the sake of what we are fighting.

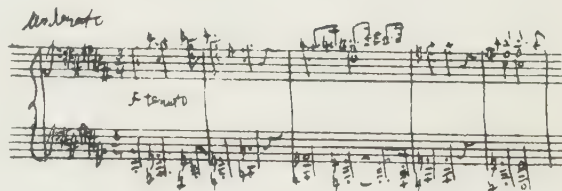
Yes, beauty has today stepped outside the narrow circle of man's lyrical emotions. It has become a weapon, since it reveals the monstrous ugliness of fascism. There is nothing surprising in the fact that they—these Vandals and Huns who devastated Yasnaya Polyana, who defiled Tchaikovsky's house in Klin—are afraid of beauty. They regard it as their mortal foe.

12^a tema 4/4 1:36

Allegro non troppo



2^a tema 4/4 1:36



Allegro non troppo
2^a tema 4/4 1:36

1st and 2nd themes from 4th movement

The idea underlying the finale of the symphony and written during his last days in Kuibyshev the composer has himself epitomized in the one word "Victory." And so it should be. This is demanded by the requiem of the first part repleted with grief, this is demanded by the scheme of the whole symphony. This is demanded by life's own truth, which sponsored the creation of this opus.

The music of victory is not brought forth at one shot. There must still be traversed a path beset by moments of reflection, of suffering and struggle. But when at the very end of the finale, backed by the powerful, solemn tonal volume of the entire orchestra,

the initial theme of the symphony, manly and proud of its beauty, once more makes its appearance, the image of victory stands before us in all its grandeur—of victory so greatly coveted and now gained, achieved at last! Here we have the recovered happiness of simple Soviet people.

Shostakovich's Seventh Symphony is one of the greatest works of art of our day. The mere fact of its creation evokes our pride, for a country that possesses an artist capable of creating during the stern days of war a production of such beauty and majesty is invincible!





At the end of his tether

TASS "WINDOWS"

by Paul SOKOLOV-SKALYA,

one of the artists and the director of TASS "Windows"

IN THESE difficult but heroic days of the Great Patriotic War all forces of the peoples of the Soviet Union are concentrated on the task of combating fascism with all its brutalities. The artists of Moscow are engaged in a great and honorable work which they are performing splendidly under wartime conditions. The lead among the art fraternity in the capital is taken by the TASS "Windows" Studio, which has resurrected the traditions of the ROST "Windows" that first saw the light of day during the Civil War conflagration. The ROST Studio was headed by the poet and artist Vladimir Mayakovsky, which determined the character of the posters produced. The text used to be a slogan in verse, accompanied by a striking laconic drawing. They hit the enemy square and strong like a well-aimed shell. Mayakovsky demanded "that the pen be made the peer of the bayonet."

The ROST "Windows" have come down in the history of our country together with the battle fought by the First Cavalry and the capture of Perekop.

Passed twenty years of peaceful construction in the land of Soviets. Conjointly with the whole of the country Soviet Artists elevated the graphic arts to a very high level. Soviet art posters, which were granted high awards at several international exhibitions, gained a firm place for themselves in the building of the new life.

Came the war.

The wanton attack of the Hitlerite bands on the Soviet Union compelled us artists to take part, literally from the very first day, in defense work in aid of the front.

Immediately after Molotov's speech on June 22nd, 1941, the artists organized the TASS "Windows" Studio, using the ROST

"Windows" as their prototype. But whereas in Mayakovsky's "Windows" the drawing frequently supplemented the text and Mayakovsky, the artist, came to the aid of Mayakovsky, the poet, with laconic symbols, in the TASS "Windows" there are instances when the artist, having set forth at length in his drawing the story of the event to be pictorialized, has exhausted the theme to such an extent that one or two words of text suffice to drive the idea completely home to the spectator.

But these are isolated cases.

In general it may be said that the posters produced by the studio give parity to artist and poet, to drawing and text, a happy combination of literary and artistic effort. Such, above all, are the "Windows" of Kukryniksy and Marshak (for instance, the "Window" bearing the text: "In the morning this fascist ordered the peasants to take off their caps; at night he gave his own cap together with his head to the guerrillas"¹). In the case of the poster "Mother,"² the author of this article, in collaboration with the poetess Margarita Aliger, strove to bring forth a product of heroic content.

We also worked out another type of "window," namely, panels. This genre is represented by the work of G. Savitsky.

V. Goryayev and S. Kostin work in the line of the grotesque.

This variety in form of the TASS "Windows" became possible because the best masters of Soviet graphic art gave without stint to the "Window" Studio their rich experience in painting and drawing and also the principles of monumental fresco and decorative work. This diversification of form was great-

¹ See on the page 63.

² See on the page 63.

ДОЛГ ПЛАТЕЖОМ КРАСЕН



ДНЕМ ФАШИСТ СКАЗАЛ КРЕСТЬЯНАМ:
ШАПКУ С ГОЛОВЫ ДАЮМ!



НОЧЬЮ ОТДАЛ ПАРТИЗАНАМ
КАСКУ ВМЕСТЕ С ГОЛОВОЙ.



КОГДА ТЫ В БОИ ИДЕШЬ, БОЕЦ,
ЗАПЯСАНИ СВЯТО ЗА ТВОЮ
РОДНУЮ МАТЬ, РОДНОЙ ОТЕЦ,
ТВОИ МИЛЫЙ КРАЙ, ТВОЙ ДОМ РОДНОМ.
КОГДА ТЫ В БОИ ИДЕШЬ, ПИЛОТ,
ЗАПОМНИ: ПОД ТВОИМ КРЫЛОМ
ТВОЙ ДРУГ ЖИВЕТ, ТВОИ СЫН РАСТЕТ,
СЯЮТ ЗВЕЗДЫ НАД КРЕМЛЕМ.
КОГДА ТЫ В БОИ ИДЕШЬ, МОРЕК,
ЗАПОМНИ ТВЕРДО НАВСЕГДА
РОДНЫЙ БЕРЕГ, АЛЫЙ ФЛАГ,
ТВОИ ПОЛЯ И ГОРОДА.

КОГДА ТЫ В БОИ ИДЕШЬ, БОЕЦ,
СКВОЗЬ ГРОМ ОРУДИЯ НАЗЕМНЫХ,
УСЛЫШЬ БИЕНАС СЕРДЕЦ
ТВОИХ ДРУЗЕЙ, ТВОИХ РОДНЫХ.
ДА БУДЕТ НЕАВАЖНОСТЬ ТВОЯ
СИЛЬНЕЕ ЧЕМ ПОДМЯ И СВИНЕЦ,
СОВЕРШЕННО ОРОСТЬЮ ГОРА,
ВПЕРЕД ЗА РОДИНУ, БОЕЦ!

рис. В. Сидоренко

стихи: М. Кольцов

ly instrumental in assuring the succes of the TASS "Windows" among the Soviet public. There is no corner anywhere in the Soviet Union where the TASS "Windows" have not penetrated. There is one more important feature of these "Windows" which contributed to their merited success. That is their timeliness. Most of the posters are gotten out by hand at the same time as the news bulletins of the Soviet Information Bureau. No printing establishment anywhere could rival such speed of output. It is explained by the fact that the studio staff (about two hundred persons) consists of highly trained masters of their several crafts. Most of them are gradu-

ates of university art courses. Inspired, like all Soviet people, by the one desire—to dedicate all their talent and strength to the cause of defeating the enemy, to achieving victory over barbarous fascism—the artists worked without surcease even during the days when Moscow directly threatened by the German hordes. They worked amidst the thunder of cannon and the boom of bursting bombs. The walls of the Moscow houses appealed through our posters for the defense of our beloved capital, called on all to show their grit, display their heroism. The form of the posters changed. Laconic, monumental "slogan posters" made their appearance, such

as: "Say, fellows, is not Moscow behind us?", "We shall not yield Moscow," "Not one step backward." The light has never been turned off in the studio ever since the war began. We work in three shifts. During the alarming days of Moscow's siege many artists and poets did not leave the studio for weeks.

At the commencement of the Red Army offensive against the Hitlerite bands, the studio produced several "Windows" a day. All joyfull tidings, each liberated Soviet city, received its picturesque reflection on the walls of Moscow's streets.

The TASS "Window" Studio is now considerably augmenting its output. In addition to increasing considerably the circulation of its "Windows," produced by hand, "Windows" of diminished size, so-called "postal card windows," are now being printed.

Honorable is the task of an artist who devotes all his energies to the art that is helping to defend the life of his country, the life of his people, merits honour, indeed. Honorable is the task of an artist who is engaged in this intense militant work, who is seeking new paths in the field of art, without lowering but, on the contrary, raising its formal quality. They are creating the art of the future while reviving art forms of their country's past. Soviet patriotism's great force arises out of a recognition of the greatness of the culture of the country's past, out of an intelligent understanding of the history of our great fatherland.

ОКНО
ТАСС N 210

ПРОДАЖА ПОСТАЛ

... ПЕРВЫЕ ОДНОКРАТНЫЕ ОТКРЫТЫЕ ПОСТЕРЫ, К.
ОТКРЫТЫЕ И ЗАКРЫТЫЕ ПО ПОДПИСИ ПОДАВЛЕ
ОТКРЫТЫЕ ПОДПИСИ С ПОДПИСИ



И ЧТО-Ж? ВСЕЖЕ ВЕЩЕВНЫЙ ЛЮБЕЦ!
КНИЖКА, ДИКИ ЗАБЫЛИ ИЛИ НЕ!
ЗАБЫЛИ РУССКИЙ ШТЫК И СНЕГ,
ПОГРЕБИЛИ СЛАВУ ИХ В ПУСТЫНЕ,
ЗЛАКОМЫМ ОМР ИХ МАНИТ ВНОВЬ-

ХМЕЛЕНА ДЛЯ НИХ СЛАВНОЕ КТО-ТО
НО ТОЖКО БУДЕТ ИМ ПОХМЕЛЬЕ,
НО ДОЛОГ БУДЕТ СОН ГОСТЕЙ
НА ТЕСНОМ, ХЛАДНОМ НОВОСЕЛЬЕ
ПОД ЗЛАКОМ СЕВЕРНЫХ ЗВЕЗД!

... ПОДПИСИ ПОДАВЛЕ ...

... ПОДПИСИ ПОДАВЛЕ ...

THE RED ARMY THEATRE

The great national war has been a test of all the Soviet art. Our theatre created by the Red Army which is bound to it by common interests, is now passing a serious test. In the days of the national war our actors were inspired with strong patriotic feelings; the speeches of Parkhomenko and the monologues of Suvorov rang on the stage as war-cries.

Along with the old plays, the theatre began on the spur of the moment to prepare new ones. The essential theme of its productions became the reflection of the heroic exploits of the Red Army men in whose soul blended the love for their fatherland with the hatred for the enemy, great joy of living and contempt of death. The war overtook a group of actors far from Moscow, in the South, where they were producing plays. With the terrible dawn of June 22 this group became a frontal brigade.

Summer passed into autumn. Then the frosts came, but braving out the bitter cold, the actors continued organizing concerts at the front, where the army was carrying on the defensive against the first blows of the fascists and afterwards the offensive.

One brigade after another were dispatched to the front and the trials of the grim war atmosphere tested the solidarity of the Army Theatre.

In the course of the war the theatre gave about one thousand concerts of which 450 concerts were the production of producer A. Shaps' brigade. At the present time this brigade is on the Karelian section of the front.

According to the decision of the Chief political department of the worker-peasants' Red Army, the main group of the theatre except those working in the Army was dispatched to act in the military district of the Urals. New troops were being formed at the Urals and the theatre was authorized through the medium of its art to tell them of the exploits of their comrades of the battle field and of the great aim of our struggle. Here they were to meet the makers of military arms, all enthusiasts constructors and workers of factories.

The idea of the unanimity of the front and the rear already shown up in the play "Winged Tribe" was revealed in all its vital importance.

On November 29th 1941 the main group of the theatre came to Sverdlovsk. Twenty days later they opened the season in the District Red Army House

with the production of the play "Winged Tribe." On December 6th was produced the play "General Suvorov." On December 17th—"Townfolk." On December 25th—"The Taming of the Shrew." On January 7th 1942—"Night of Mistakes" and on January 31st was the first night production of Ostrovsky's "There are always enough of simpletons for every sage." In the old plays now renewed and in the rehearsals of the new ones all the main staff of the theatre takes part that is: Honoured worker of art I. Vasiliev, honoured artists of the Republic: L. Dmitrovskaya, V. Okuneva, N. Kononov, A. Khokhlov and A. Khovansky, the actors: L. Dobrzhanskaya, P. Konstantinov, B. Nechaev, V. Ratousky and others.

As usual the plays were mounted by the painters of the theatre — U. Nefedov and I. Fedorov.

The new conditions decide a new stage in the creative life of the theatre. All efforts are directed towards making the artistic work of the theatre more mature and deep.

Life has changed and together with it the private mode of life of the theatre and what's most important of all, the very atmosphere of the theatre has undergone a change.

The theatrical workers are stirred by the great feeling of responsibility before the whole country and this makes them all alive and attentive to their cause, and disciplined in their creative work. A strenuous work is being carried on as to the organization of the up-to-date military plays.

The rehearsals of the two brothers Tours' and L. Sheinin's "Fatherland Smoke" are in progress: the first night production of this play took place on the day of the 24th anniversary of the Red Army. The play reflects one of the episodes of the great national war and is devoted to the heroic struggle of the people's avengers — the guerilla detachments, and the regular Red Army troops against the German invaders.

The producing association of the theatre decided to make of the play a document expressing wrath and accusation. The play speaks of the peoples' sufferings and sacrifices, its wisdom and militancy.

In the twilight of the dense forests, among the marshes matures the people's wrath and in the play we see the old and young men and women, collective farmers, the president of the district executive committee and the district doctor—all rise spurred

on by hatred, to take part in the war against the invaders.

In the exploits of our collective farmers in their methods of carrying on the guerilla war live the undying traditions of the Russian peasantry always ready to rise and take part in the national war, whenever the enemy threatened their fatherland.

Thus in the days of the civil war, the close coordination of the peasants' guerilla detachments and the young Red Army brought disaster to the German army of occupation. The theatre is preparing a play which reflects this heroic period of life of the Soviet country, as well.

In Pzheshevsky's and Katz's play "Oleko Dundich" the hero is a Serb commander of a cavalry squadron. Oleko Dundich has found his second fatherland in Russia and with all the fire of an artless, joyous and desperately brave man he loves this boundless country and its freedom-loving people.

In the name of the freedom of his new fatherland, in the name of the assertion of life did he risk his life. Amid danger his mind got whetted and the fearless nature of a soldier revealed itself in full.

The essence of his character was splendidly disclosed by K. E. Voroshilov, who wrote the following: "What about Red Dundich? Who can compete with this really magic hero in bravery, in kindness, in friendly warm-heartedness. He's a lion with the heart of a 'dear child.'" The play expresses the greatness and power of the liberating national war.

The greatness and force of the people find their source in the deep patriotism that has always been the dominating feature of the Russian national character. The heroic comedy in verse by A. Gladkov: "Long ago" asserts this feature. The national war of 1812 is revealed in the poetic story of the girl-

hussar Nadezhda Durova, the prototype of the heroine Shura.

In the play the author describes her relationship with her friends of the battle-field, the hussars—partisans "fosterlings of glory" as they call themselves and their brave and selfdenying struggle against the French. Great is the difference between the two national wars of 1812 and that of 1941—1942, but the same spirit permeates them both—the flaming wrath of the Russian people against the foreign invaders.

All these plays will be produced in the course of three-four months. The dramaturgists Al. Gladkov, A. Arbuzov, L. Kassil, B. Romashov, L. Slavin are working at new war plays for the theatre. Along with the patriotic repertory the Red Army Theatre continues working at the classical plays: in particular Schiller's play "Craft and Love" is going to be produced in the nearest future.

The concert repertory of the front and rear brigades of the theatre is continually being renovated.

The new impressions of war life are a source of creation for the members of the brigade. The theatre is proud of its comrades of the battle-field and among them there is a real creative competition for the right of going to the front. Close intercourse with the soldiers and commanders and the life of the brigades at the front, could not but influence the artistic level of the plays, also the creative powers of the actors.

Unnoticed by them their art became more severe and more viril, more austere and at the same time nearer to the Army. And what greater joy for an artist than the knowledge that his work has mobilized the feelings and thoughts of the Soviet citizen for the struggle against the hated foe, that his art prompts the Red Army men to rise for fighting.

C I N E M A

In the days of the sacred national war, demanding of the Soviet country a great concentration of all its live forces, Russian art is struggling against the enemy together with the Russian army. The works of Soviet art inspire many millions in their relentless struggle for the annihilation of Hitlerism.

The Soviet country has taken care that the arsenals of its moral weapons should be beyond the range of the Hitlerite destroyers of culture and should work without interruption. The well known cinema studios of Moscow and Leningrad, the source of almost all the Russian cinema chef-d'œuvres, as for instance "Battleship Potemkin," "Chapaev," "Mother," were evacuated from the towns besieged by the fascists, and were in good time and order transferred to distant Kasakhstan. Here an extensive cinema atelier has been organized, where the masters of Soviet cinema art S. Eisenstein, V. Pudovkin, G. Kosintzev, L. Trauberg, brothers Vassiliev, are working. The work, started in a new place, in unsuitable buildings, has naturally encountered many difficulties. These difficulties have to be overcome in the process of the work, whereas the intense

activity connected with the filming of a great number of films, reflecting the noble, heroic struggle of the Soviet people against the hitlerite hordes, does not cease.

"The Youth from Our Town" is a film telling of the soviet young man who has become a commander of the Red Army. The contents of the film "Partisans" are clear from the title. A. Kapler, the author of the scenario, is at the same time the scenarist of the films "Lenin in October" and "Lenin in 1918."

The division, commanded by the fearless General Panfilov, is the principal acting personage of the film "Eighth Division of the Guards." General Ivan Vassilievich Panfilov, a born Russian talent, has followed the course from soldier of the tsarist army to general of the Red Army. He died a valiant death on the field of battle in the terrible days of November 1941 when the fascist hordes were menacing Moscow. The last order of General Panfilov sounds: "Let us die, but no German tanks dare pass." On the approaches to Moscow, during the battles of October 20—27, the division commanded by General

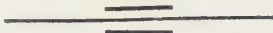
Panfilov broke down the attack of three infantry and one tank division of the fascists. In the first guard of honour at the coffin of the intrepid General stood three generals and a young girl in a Red Army man's coat. This was Valia, the daughter of the General. She went as nurse to the front together with the division of her father. She heard of the death of her father when she was dressing a wound and she found strength to finish her work.

Thus, a brief account is given of the principal films which are being prepared in the united atelier in Alma-Ata. The following should be mentioned besides: the historical film "John the Terrible" is occupying the attention of S. Eisenstein, who is working in capacity of scenarist and regisseur; the film "Djambul" about the ninety year old Djambul, the great poet of the Kasakhs people, and six most interesting cinema compilations consisting of materials about the second national war.

At the head of the cinema atelier stands the renowned soviet regisseur F. Ermler.

Along with this extensive current work, Ermler, together with Bleuman and Boshintzeff, are writing a scenario about Moscow in 1941 called "The Heart of the Fatherland." This scenario is being written hot in pursuit of the current tremendous events of the war, being at the same time planned as a historical film. While Soviet Russia is fighting and struggling, Hitler does not feel himself conqueror, either in devastated Poland, or in Norway, dishonoured by him. Moscow is the symbol of the mighty Soviet country, Moscow is courageously and supremely struggling against fascism, and all the peoples, enslaved by Hitler, are looking with hope at this titanic struggle.

Therefore, in the remote rear, the Russian cinema is forging a mighty moral weapon against Hitlerism.



B I B L I O G R A P H Y

HISTORY

Historical Notes, official publication of the Institute of History of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. Editor-in-chief—B. Grekov, Vol. VIII, 252 pp., 1940; Vol. IX, 292 pp., 1940; Vol. X, 301 pp.; 1941.

The last three volumes of the *Historical Notes* contain various material on the history of the USSR, from ancient times up to and including the twentieth century.

In an article by V. Prussak entitled "Factories that produced for Pugachev," an abundance of archive material found by the author has been utilized by him to present a detailed exposition of the attempt made by Pugachev and his closest associates to set production going at several factories they had seized (the Izhevsk, Voznessensk and Avzyano-Petrovsk works).

The volume also contains other articles based on extensive, hitherto unpublished archive material: S. Barushin, "Manufactories of Russian Traders in the 17th Century," a description of the manufactories of Nadea Sveteshnikov at Zhiguli and of the Gurevs in the town of Yaitsk; E. Sevak, "The Persian Question in Russia's Relations with Europe in the 17th Century;" K. Pazhitnov, "Artisan Organization in Moscow and Peter's Reform;" A. Pirtskhalaishvili, "Anent the History of the Action of the Tbilissi (Tiflis) Amkars in 1865;" P. Sharov, "Tsarism's Policy of Settling Central Asia."

Other articles in this volume are: I. Drozdov, "Peasant Unions in the Chernigov District in 1905—1906;" L. Cherepnin, "From the History of Ancient Russian Feudal Relations in the 14th to 16th Centuries;" K. Sivkov, "Budget of a Big Feudal Owner of the First Third of the 19th Century."

Volume X of the *Historical Notes* opens with an article by M. Nechkina, "N. Chernyshevsky in Times of a Revolutionary Situation," in which the author establishes that Chernyshevsky had written the famous proclamation entitled "To Peasant Serfs" and that the first *Zemlya i Volya* organization, formed in 1862, had been preceded by some other revolutionary organization grouped around Chernyshevsky.

Three works deal with the 16th century: P. Sadi-kov's *Research on the so-called "quarter" chancery (prikaz)* in Moscow in the days of the *Oprichnina*, devoted to the question of organization of the governmental administration during the period of the formation of the centralized feudal state; an article by S. Veselovsky on landownership of monasteries in 1552—1590, for which the author has studied

archive material relating to 657 landownerships; and a publication by M. Tikhomirov (unknown chronicles and sketches).

Other items contained in this volume are V. Lubimov's research on an important article in the *Russkaya Pravda* ("Smerd and Holop"); P. Lubomirov's article, "History of Lumber Mills in Russia in the 17th to 19th Centuries;" S. Bogoyavlensky and A. Ivanov, "The Uprising in Chechna in 1877."

V. Lavrovsky, *Acts of Parliament on the Enclosure of Commons in England at the End of the Eighteenth and the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century*. Institute of History, 200 pp., 1940, circulation—2 000.

This is a piece of research on the question of agrarian changes in England at the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century. The author based his work on material he gathered at the public archive in London. The most important problems worked out by the author are landholding by the peasantry, the nobility and the Church and the changes that were introduced here by the Parliamentary legislation on enclosures.

Appended to the monograph there is an atlas consisting of 41 maps dealing with Parliamentary legislation on common lands in England.

This book is intended for scientific workers and instructors of history.

MATERIALS AND INVESTIGATIONS IN USSR

ARCHEOLOGY

Archeological Monuments of the Urals and Kama districts. N. Marr Institute of the History of Material Culture, Academy of Sciences of the USSR. 168 pp. with 81 illustrations and 30 tables; 1940, circulation—800.

Each year's research by Soviet archeologists brings new proof of the exceptionally rich and varied archeological monuments of the regions bordering on the Ural and Kama Rivers. The investigations published in the present symposium give accounts of excavations of the monographic sketches dealing with separate finds.

The symposium sheds light on the neolithic monuments of the middle Kama district, the results of the latest excavations in the Gorbunov peat fields, materials on peculiar Andronov burial mounds of the bronze age investigated near Chelyabinsk and bronze age interments discovered near Orsk. Most completely represented in the symposium are the results of the researches conducted for the location of inhabited places during the first millennium B. C.—the sites of towns and villages of the Ananyino and Glyadino epochs in the Kama district. Of distinct character is the work of L. Matsusevich, called "*Byzantine Antiques in the Kama Area*," which is a free and circumstantial interpretation of particular importance to archeologists and historians of all Byzantine products ever found in the north-east corner of European Russia. This essay, in conjunction with the subsequent publications on Kama and Ural archeological finds, makes the symposium a fit basis for the elaboration of problems related to the ancient history of this part of the USSR.

Y. Manandian, *Mesrop-Mashtots and the Struggle of the Armenian People for Cultural Autochthony*. Armenian Branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, Institute of History and Material Culture; Erevan, 48 pp., 1941. Circulation—2,500.

The pamphlet describes the life and educational work of Mesrop-Mashtots (d. 440 A.D.), the inventor of the Armenian alphabet and the founder of Armenian letters and arts. A critical review is given of the

literature on the question of the time of invention of the Armenian alphabet and weighty reasons are assigned for a revision of the chronology of this period, which, according to the author, is incorrect in scientific literature. The chief sources relied on by the author were a small book by Koryun, a disciple of Mesrop-Mashtots, written in the fifth century and also historical writings by Moses of Khoren and Lazarus Parbetsi (fifth century).

Materials on the History of Georgia and the Caucasus, 1940, second edition (Georgian Branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, N. Marr Institute of Languages, History and Material Culture). Tiflis, Georgia Branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, 140 pp., circulation—1,000. In Georgian

This is a description of the contents of separate documents on the history of Georgia in the eighteenth century, with a selection of extracts from them. This book sheds new light on the history of Georgia from 1762 on, on the basis of material kept in the State Archive in the Epoch of Feudalism and Serfdom, Central Archive for Military History. There is an appendix consisting of a list of documents (in Russian) relating to the history of Georgia in the eighteenth century and kept in the State Archive for the Epoch of Feudalism and Serfdom and in other Moscow archives.

ORIENTAL STUDIES

Annals of the Khorin Buryats (material on the history of Buryat-Mongolia). Institute of Oriental Sciences, Academy of Sciences of the USSR and State Scientific Research Institute of Languages, Literature and History, Buryat-Mongolian Auton. SSR. 108 pp., 1940, circulation—1,500.

This is a translation of two fundamental historical works: *The Chronicles of Tuguldur Toboev* and of *Wandan Yumsunov*. They are very valuable reference books for students of Buryat-Mongolian history of the seventeenth to nineteenth centuries.

The translation is prefaced by an article from the pen of N. Poppe, Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

K. Trever, *Monuments of Greco-Bactrian Art* (State Hermitage), 170 pp., 1940, with an album containing 50 illustrations. Circulation—1,500.

This is a scientific monograph devoted to Greco-

Bactrian art and at the same time the first complete scientific catalogue of the State Hermitage collection mentioned.

The Hermitage collection of monuments of Greco-Bactrian art, most of which were found on territory of the USSR, is an *omnium gatherum* unique for its completeness to which great importance attaches for the scientific elucidation of various aspects of Greco-Bactrian culture, as well as for the history of a number of Central Asiatic nationalities forming part of the Soviet Union. The description of each one of the objects in this collection is accompanied by research text. Moreover, there is a general introduction delineating in a general way the characteristic features of Greco-Bactrian art and summarizing the conclusions derived from a detailed study of the Hermitage relics. The book is enriched by an album with 50 tables.

ETHNOGRAPHY

A. Kondaurov, *Patriarchal Household Communities and Community Houses among the Yagnobtsi*, Works of the Institute of Ethnography, Vol. III; first ed., 80 pp., 1940, circulation—1,000.

The Yagnobtsi, the supposed descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Central Asia, the Sogdians, live in one of the high mountain districts of the Tajic

SSR. The author expounds material dealing with features of primitive community which existed among the Yagnobtsi even in the recent past.

The present work is intended for use by scientific workers and others interested in the ethnography and history of the peoples of the USSR, particularly of the peoples of the Central Asian republics.

ECONOMICS

I. Blumin, *Outlines of Economic Thought in Russia in the First Half of the Nineteenth Century*, Institute of Economics of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, 286 pp., 1940. Circulation—12,000.

The author undertook the task of showing how specifically the ideas of the English classical school of political economy and French utopian socialism were refracted in the peculiar conditions of serf Russia.

The *Outlines* review the economic views of the apologists of serfdom (*The Spirit of the Periodicals*)

of N. Mordvinov, an ideologist of the industrialization of feudal Russia, of Cancrin, the official ideologist of protectionism, of N. Polevoy, an ideologist of the Russian bourgeoisie, the economic views of Storch, one of the most outstanding exponents of the views held by the liberal section of the nobility in Russia at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the economic ideas of the Decembrists, and also the views of Belinsky, Herzen and V. Milyutin, representatives of Russian utopian socialism.

LITERARY RESEARCH

On *Pushkin*, Chronicle of the Pushkin Commission, Academy of Sciences of the USSR, Institute of Literature, 1941, 586 pp., circulation—3,000.

Like the former editions, the present edition contains publications of new texts of Pushkin, research and articles concerning them, materials and communications, surveys, reviews, etc. Part I contains: 1) Verses on Napoleon and Byron in his poem "To the Sea," which shed light on the history of the text of this poem; 2) hitherto unknown autobiogra-

phical notes by Pushkin; and 3) a new autograph by Pushkin, an extract he copied from Dmitri Rostovsky's *Chetgi Minei* (Lives of the Saints). In the research part of the symposium articles are published on an analysis of the separate works of Pushkin, the historical motives underlying Pushkin's creative work, on his work in the domain of folklore. The volume also contains new archive material and communications (on the new material) which clarify certain phases of the poet's life and work.

L A W

A. Vyshinsky, Academy. *The Theory of Judicial Evidence in Soviet Jurisprudence*, Institute of Law, Legal Publishing House of the People's Commissariat of Justice of the USSR, 220 pp., 1941, circulation—8 000.

The author explains the significance of evidence in judicial investigations and decisions, the tasks of Soviet trial law, the place held by evidence in the science of judicial law and the connection between the law of evidence and criminal law. Then there is

a critical examination of the theory of formal evidence, the theory of so-called free weighing of evidence and also English law of evidence and the specific features of the English system of giving testimony. A great part of the book is devoted to an examination of the fundamental principles of Soviet law of evidence, its classification, a classification of testimony under Soviet law and the theory of proof (circumstantial evidence).

LITERATURE

History of English Realism, edited by Prof. I. Anisimov, Gorki Institute of World Literature, Academy of Sciences of the USSR, 244 pp., 1941, circulation—4,000.

Purpose of the symposium: to give an idea of some of the most important facts concerning the history of realism in England during the sixteenth to nineteenth centuries. The study of the language and style of Shakespeare (by M. Morozov), which is included in the volume and two monographic works on the most prominent representatives of English realism in the eighteenth century—Fielding (an essay by A. Yelistratov) and Stern (by I. Wertsman)—represent an attempt to present a more or less complete elucidation of questions on which little work

has so far been done in scientific literature. A fourth outline (by T. Silman) discusses the work of that great English realist of the nineteenth century, Charles Dickens.

Problems of Realism in Russian Literature of the Eighteenth Century, a collection of articles of which N. Gudzi is editor. Gorki Institute of World Literature, Academy of Sciences of the USSR, 323 pp., 1940, circulation—2,500.

The book consists of a collection of papers read at the Gorki Institute of World Literature. One theme runs through all of these papers—the birth of realism in Russian Literature in the eighteenth century.

ZOOLOGY

N. Artemov, *Bee Poison, Its physiological Properties and Therapeutic Application*, A. Severtsov Institute of Evolutionary Morphology, Academy of Sciences of the USSR, 118 pp., 1941, circulation—1500.

This work presents an analysis of the physico-chemical properties of bee poison, an account of the history of the therapeutic applications of it and an examination of the situation today with regard to its use as a medicament (in the physician's practice and as a household medicine).

FAUNA OF THE USSR, S. Zernov, editor-in-chief, A. Shtakelberg, editor, *Hymenoptera*, Vol. V, 3rd ed., by A. Teleng, fam. of Braconidae, sub-fam. of Braconinae (continuation and Sigalphinae). Zoological Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the

USSR, new series No. 24, 466 pp., 1941. Circulation—1,000.

This edition includes the following species of ichneumonides of the sub-family Braconinae: Exothecini, Spathiini, Hecabolini, Pambolini, Doryctini, Hormiini, and Rhogadini, and the entire subfamily of the Sigalphinae. Most of the groups here treated are represented in the collections in rich series from various parts of the Soviet Union. Especially rich representation is enjoyed by tribes of the Rhogadini and the Chelonini, which made it possible to characterize with fair completeness their distribution and to introduce a number of changes in the classification of these groups. Many of the groups of ichneumonides dealt with here are of great economic importance as parasites of the most harmful insects. The drawings for the present work are mainly the product of I. Grigoriev; some are by P. Zorin.

BOTANY

P. Golovin, *Mushrooms of the Sand Deserts of Central Asia*, Academy of Sciences of the USSR, Uzbekistan Branch, Botanical Institute, Works of the Uzbekistan Branch, series XI, Botany, first ed., Tashkent, 47 pp., 1941.

The book gives a general outline of the micro-

flora of the Central Asian deserts, characterizes the part played by mushrooms in the economic development of desert land, provides a systematic list of mushrooms collected in the deserts of Central Asia down to 1936 and also lists of plants and an indication of the mushrooms met with on these plants.

SOIL STUDY

Works of the V. Dokuchayev Soil Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, vol. XXII, 2nd ed., S. Selyakov, *Nitrate and Chloride Salt Marshes and Saltpeter Deposits in Central Asia*, 84 pp., 1941, circulation—1,000.

The author examines the question of the nature

of the saltpeter deposits in Central Asia in connection with the general history of nitrogen in the earth's crust, efflorescence and soils, with a detailed description of that part of the processes involved for which the formation of saltpeter is characteristic.

